

WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT FOR SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS THROUGH THE LAND REFORM IN ZIMBABWE

By

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DECLARATION

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I, Alick Murombo declare that the dissertation entitled: **Women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods through the land reform in Zimbabwe** is my own research and that sources which have been consulted, have been shown and acknowledged by means of complete references. I hereby attest that this study has not been previously submitted, either in whole or in part, for any other qualification in this University or elsewhere.

STUDENT SIGNATURE

DATE



.....

21/01/2019

DEDICATION

To Rosemary Murombo, my beloved wife and my beautiful granddaughter Siobhan Alma, I truly dedicate this work to you.

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I would like to direct my indebtedness to the following individuals, for their support throughout this research:

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ABSTRACT

The study explored the extent of women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods through the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) in Zimbabwe, focusing on three wards in the Makoni district. The study addressed the paucity of information on the usefulness of land redistribution on women's improved food security and disposable income. Using a qualitative case study, the researcher purposefully selected thirty female land beneficiaries to participate in focus group discussions and five land officers from government departments to be interviewed as key informants. Findings reveal that the FTLRP generally meant that men accessed more land than women. Women's livelihood initiatives were hampered by their failure to access sufficient support from the government and external partners. Despite the government signing various charters purported to support women's empowerment, there is still a lot to be done to achieve it.

Keywords: women's economic empowerment, Fast Track Land Reform Programme, gender disparity, gender inequality.

ISIFINQO

Lolu cwaningo lwaluhlola izinga lwamandla okuthuthukiswa komnotho kwabesifazane ukuze kube nokuphila okusimeme ngokusebenzisa Uhlelo Lokusheshiswa Kokuguqulwa Komhlaba eZimbabwe, lugxile ezigcemeni ezintathu eMkhandlwini waseMakoni. Lolu cwaningo lwethula ukuntuleka kolwazi ngokubaluleka kokubuyiswa komhlaba kabusha okumayelana nokuvikelwa kokuthuthukiswa nokuphepha kokudla kwabesifazane nokuthola imali engenayo. Ukusebenzisa ucwaningo lwesigameko olubhekene nobungako bento, umcwaningi wakhetha ngenhloso abazuzi noma abahlomuli besifazane bomhlaba abangamashumi amathathu ukuba babambe iqhaza ezigxoxweni zeqembu ezigxile kokuthize kanye nenhlolokhono nezikhulu zomhlaba ezinhlanu ezivela eminyangweni kahulumeni njengabantu ababalulekile. Kuye kwatholakala ukuthi Uhlelo Lokusheshiswa Kokuguqulwa Komhlaba luchaza ukuthi abesilisa yibona abahlomula kakhulu ukudlula abesifazane. Izindlela zokuphila zabesifazane zavinjelwa ukwehluleka kwabo ekutholeni uxhaso olwanele oluvela kuhulumeni kanye nabambisane nabo abangaphandle. Ngaphandle kokuba uhulumeni asayinde incwadi ewumqulu enikezelana ngelungelo noma amandla okubhekiswe ekusekeleni kokuxhaswa kokuthukiswa kwabesifazane, kuningi okusamelwe kwenziwe ukufezekisa lombono.

Amagama abalulekile: okuthuthukiswa komnotho kwabesifazane, Uhlelo Lokusheshiswa Kokuguqulwa Komhlaba, ukungafani ngokobulili, ukungalingani ngokobulili

ISISHWANKATHELO

Esi sifundo saqwalasela ubungakanani bokuxhotyiswa kwabafazi ngamandla ezoqoqosho abawanikwa ngenkqubo ekuthiwa yi *Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP)* eZimbabwe, kugxininiswa kwiiwadi ezintathu ezikwisithili saseMakoni. Esi sifundo salungisa ukunqaba kolwazi olumalunga nokuba luncedo konikezelo lomhlaba malunga nokuphuculwa kokuqinisekiswa kokutya nemivuzo yabafazi. Ngokusebenzisa isifundo esigxila kumgangatho ngokuthatha imizekelo yeemeko ezithile, umphandi wakhetha ngononophelo abafazi abangamashumi abathathu nababenikwe umhlaba, wabasebenzisa kwiingxoxo zamaqela, waqhuba udliwano ndlebe namagosa eSebe lezemihlaba. Okwafunyaniswayo kwadiza ukuba ngokweFTLRP amadoda afumana umhlaba omninzi ngaphezu kwabafazi. Intlalo nempilo yabafazi iqhwaleliswa kukungafumani kwabo inkxaso eyaneleyo kurhulumente nakumaqabane karhulumente angaphandle. Nangona urhulumente etyikitya izivumelwano ezininzi ezithi uxhobisa abafazi, kusekuninzi ekufuneka kwenziwe ukuze iphumelele loo njongo.

Amagama aphambili: ukuxhotyiswa kwabafazi kwezoqoqosho, iNkqubo yophuculo eyi *Fast Track Land Reform Programme*, ukushiyashiyana kwezabelo ngokwesini, ukungalingani ngokwesini

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ISIFINQO.....	v
ISISHWANKATHELO	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS.....	xiv
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH PROBLEM.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY.....	2
1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT	11
1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	12
1.5 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY.....	12
1.6 THE CHOSEN RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	13
1.7 DATA ANALYSIS	15
1.8 THE CHOSEN THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	15
1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	16
1.10 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS.....	17
1.10.1 Assets	17
1.10.2 Women's economic empowerment.....	17
1.10.3 Livelihoods	17
1.10.4 Sustainable livelihoods.....	17
1.10.5 Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP).....	18
1.10.6 Model A1	18

1.10.7	Model A2	18
1.10.8	Women farmers	18
1.10.9	Commercial farmers	19
1.10.10	Subsistence farmers	19
1.10.11	Beneficiaries of land reform programmes.....	19
1.10.12	Model A1 farmer	19
1.11	STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION.....	19
1.12	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	20
	CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	21
2.1	INTRODUCTION	21
2.2	HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE LAND REFORM IN ZIMBABWE.....	21
2.3	EFFECTS OF THE LAND REFORM ON AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION	25
2.4	EFFECTS OF THE LAND REFORM ON THE ZIMBABWEAN ECONOMY	26
2.5	THE GENDERED FTLRP AND WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT	27
2.6	THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	28
2.6.1	Empowerment theory	29
2.6.2	Sustainable livelihoods framework (SLF).....	32
2.6.3	Symbiotic relationship between empowerment and livelihoods.....	35
2.6.4	Empowerment, livelihoods, and food security.....	36
2.6.5	Factors that influence WEE	37
2.6.6	Methods to empower women.....	38
2.6.6.1	Giving land to women	38
2.6.6.2	Promoting women to senior positions.....	39
2.6.6.3	Involving women in development and management activities	39
2.7	ECONOMIC BENEFITS OF WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT	39
2.8	GAP IN THE LITERATURE AND SUMMARY.....	40
2.9	CHAPTER SUMMARY	40
	CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	41
3.1	INTRODUCTION	41

3.2	RESEARCH DESIGN.....	41
3.3	CASE STUDY RESEARCH.....	42
3.4	POPULATION AND SAMPLE	45
3.5	DATA COLLECTION METHODS AND PROCEDURE	46
3.5.1	Key informant interviews	46
3.5.2	Focus Group Discussions (FGDs).....	48
3.5.3	Secondary sources – documents.....	49
3.6	ISSUES OF TRUSTWORTHINESS AND CREDIBILITY	49
3.6.1	Credibility	50
3.6.2	Transferability.....	50
3.6.3	Dependability	51
3.6.4	Confirmability	51
3.7	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	53
3.7.1	Respect for persons	53
3.7.2	Beneficence	53
3.7.3	Justice.....	54
3.7.4	Confidentiality and anonymity.....	54
3.8	REFLECTIVE REVIEW OF THE RESEARCHER'S POSITIONALITY VIS-À-VIS THE RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS	55
3.9	CHAPTER SUMMARY	56
	CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION.....	57
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	57
4.2	BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS OF THE RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS.....	57
4.3	THE ROLE OF PHASE 2 OF THE LAND REFORM IN ZIMBABWE, IN IMPROVING WOMEN'S LIVELIHOODS.....	58
4.3.1	General views of the land reform.....	58
4.3.2	Land reform as a WEE initiative: the link to combating violence against women 61	
4.3.3	The impact of WEE on families and households.....	62
4.3.4	The problems of the FTLRP	62

4.4	INCOME-GENERATING ACTIVITIES FOR WOMEN LAND BENEFICIARIES AFTER PHASE 2.....	63
4.4.1	The primacy of maize production.....	63
4.4.2	Sugar bean production as a long-term option	64
4.4.3	The poor uptake of vegetable growing.....	65
4.4.4	Growing tobacco	66
4.4.5	Livestock production.....	66
4.4.6	Diversification of income-generating activities	69
4.5	SUPPORT STRUCTURES AND RESOURCES FOR WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT.....	71
4.5.1	Government providing land to women	72
4.5.2	Challenges in land tenure and poor access to state financial support for women farmers	73
4.5.3	Access to water and irrigation.....	74
4.5.4	Training for women farmers.....	74
4.6	THE ROLE OF NON-STATE PARTNERS IN ASSISTING RURAL WOMEN LAND BENEFICIARIES.....	75
4.7	STRATEGIES ADOPTED TO STRENGTHEN WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT IN ZIMBABWE.....	78
4.8	CHAPTER SUMMARY	81
	CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	82
5.1	INTRODUCTION	82
5.2	SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTERS.....	82
5.3	SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS	84
5.4	NEW INSIGHTS UNCOVERED IN THIS STUDY	87
5.5	SYNTHESIS OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	89
5.5.1	The role of Phase 2 of the land reform in Zimbabwe in improving women's livelihoods	89
5.5.2	Income-generating activities for women land beneficiaries after Phase 2 of the land reform in Zimbabwe	90
5.5.3	Support structures and resources for women's economic empowerment	91

5.5.4 Assistance rendered by external partners towards rural women land beneficiaries	93
5.5.5 Strategies adopted to empower women economically	93
5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	94
5.7 MEETING THE STATED RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	95
5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	96
LIST OF REFERENCES.....	98
APPENDIX 1: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE.....	115
APPENDIX 2: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS GUIDE FOR WOMEN LAND BENEFICIARIES	117
APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR LAND OFFICERS.....	119
APPENDIX 4: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO THE DISTRICT ADMINISTRATOR	120
APPENDIX 5: CONSENT FORM.....	120

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 2.1: The sustainable livelihoods framework	34
Figure 2.2: Researcher's conceptual framework based on the review of the literature	35
Figure 2.3: Factors that contribute to women economic empowerment	37
Figure 3.1: Map of Makoni District	45

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 2.1: Extremely reduced livelihoods components before sustainable livelihoods	33
Table 2.1: Sustainable livelihoods framework	33
Table 3.1: Makoni district population aggregated by sex and age	44

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BSAC	British South African Company
CBZ	Commercial Bank of Zimbabwe
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women
DA	District Administrator
EGM	Expert Group Meeting
FACT	Family Aids Caring Trust
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FDGs	Focus Group Discussions
FTLRP	Fast Track Land Reform Programme
GAD	Gender-and-Development
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ISAL	Internal Savings and Lending
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MRCZ	Medical Research Council of Zimbabwe Medical Research Council of Zimbabwe
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
RDCs	Rural District Councils
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SME	Small to Medium Enterprise
WEE	Women's Economic Empowerment
WID	Women-in-Development
ZDERA	Zimbabwe Democracy and Economic Recovery Act
ZEC	Zimbabwe Electoral Commission
ZIMASSET	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMSTAT	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study explored how the land reform in Zimbabwe empowered women economically through sustainable livelihoods initiatives. Research was conducted in Makoni District of Manicaland Province, Zimbabwe. It focused on the implementation of the land reform programme and whether women benefitted economically from the initiative. The researcher contends that, while the land reform programme was a notable intervention in the lives of the general Zimbabwean black populace, men benefitted more than women. The reason for this disparity could be the influence of gender norms, which negatively impacted women's access to land.

Gender is the socially created differences between males and females (UN Women 2015). Women's empowerment through sustainable livelihoods had been affected in part by the patriarchal system that supports the domination of women by men. During the Zimbabwean reform programme, men largely benefited from the programme at the expense of women. It should be observed from the outset that women's limited access to land is not a new phenomenon that began during Zimbabwe's land reform programme. It has been prevalent in many African societies, and in Zimbabwe in particular (UN Women 2015). Thus, even the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) in Zimbabwe, although claiming to be a gendered approach, remained tainted by male domination.

The issue of women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods, which was the thrust for this research, stimulated a lot of academic discussion as to its role in improving women's livelihoods, as a result of the land reform programme in Zimbabwe. The second phase of Zimbabwe's FTLRP, which started in 2000, was meant to address historical and discriminatory land imbalances created through a white minority monopolising the best arable land, while the black Zimbabwean majority toiled and eked a living on barren and infertile land. However, Moyo and Yeros (2005) assert that the land reform programme received mixed criticism globally, regionally, and nationally.

Moyo and Yeros (2005) opine that while the land reform programme could be viewed as a chaotic policy that hastened the collapse of the national economy, leaving many Zimbabweans in abject poverty, the strengths of this programme were that a considerable number of black Zimbabweans began to occupy fertile land, which used to be white owned. The other criticism that had been levelled against the land reform programme was that Zimbabwean men and women benefited differently from the programme. The reason for this disparity lies with the Zimbabwean patriarchal system and gender inequity. However, it would be unscholarly to solely claim that all Zimbabwean women did not benefit from the land reform programme (Hoogeveen & Kinsey 2001; Hellum & Derman 2004; Mutopo 2011). Hellum and Derman (2004) contend that some women had been empowered as a result of the land reform programme and had enjoyed sustainable livelihood initiatives. This study, therefore, explored whether women in Makoni district had been thusly empowered through the land reform programme.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Women are affected by gender incongruence in society (World Bank 2011a). The World Bank (2011a) states that women might experience poverty more than men, largely because they are denied equal rights and opportunities in all spheres of life. This assertion was shared by the United Nations Women Watch (2012) which states that women generally experience the negative effect of gender when the attempt to access or control the means of production, such as land, capital, and infrastructure. More so, women might be excluded from key decision-making processes in the development process (Kabeer 2015). To this end, Hallett (2017) adds that gender inequality remains a prevalent factor in the persistence of worldwide poverty.

Gender inequality negatively affects more women than men (Kabeer 2015). Kabeer (2015) identifies two forms of inequalities, namely vertical and horizontal imbalances. These inequalities might lead to poverty among individuals in various societies. Vertical inequalities categorise people/households by their position within the income/wealth ladder, while horizontal inequalities refer to disparities between socially distinct groups that cut across income sets (Kabeer 2003 & 2010). Vertical inequalities

focus on class-based disparities, while horizontal inequalities pay attention to discrimination based on ostracised social characteristics, such as gender, race, or ethnicity (Stewart 2002). Kabeer (2015) asserts that, with regards to women's involvement and participation in developmental activities, there is an interplay between vertical inequality with the numerous and corresponding horizontal inequalities. These factors help to explain the poverty, discrimination, and social exclusion of women in society and often lead to women's limited access to life opportunities (Milanovic 2012; UN Women 2013).

Gender discrimination is more prevalent in many societies than any other form of inequality, though it may be evident in diverse forms (Sahra 2016). Sahra (2016) opines that gender inequality is pervasive across different groups in society cutting across class, creed, ethnicity, and other forms of inequality. Gender inequality pervades society and predetermines a woman's role in production and reproduction.

Spieldoch (2011) establishes that even food security is gender-biased, with women being more food insecure than men. Food insecurity can be viewed as the lack of appropriate and adequate nutritive energy or any micronutrient scarcities among an individual or group of individuals (Barrett 2016). However, in developing countries, the predicament of food insecurity is largely experienced by women, as a result of women's failure to engage in sustainable livelihood initiatives (Spieldoch 2011). The marginalisation of women is a vicious cycle wherein women continue to be the labourers, performing menial and low paying jobs, which in the end negatively affect women's self-sustenance (Fukuda-Parr 2016).

Further compounding women's restrictions to unpaid care and domestic work, is their lack of voice. In this regard, Bessel (2015) argues that usually being poor and marginalised could be equated to having little agency in influencing decision-makers, policy, or public debate, and this has been largely experienced by women. Overall, related to the quest of attaining equality of involvement in leadership and decision-making is the concern for women's economic empowerment. This empowerment could include the acknowledgement of the importance of unpaid care and performance of domestic work through the endowment of public services, infrastructure, and social

protection policies that provide equity between women and men (Expert Group Meeting 2016).

The issue of gender also intersects with other categorisations such as marriage and education that render women at a greater disadvantage for socio-economic benefits to be gained from development (Ferrant & Nowacka 2015). Ferrant and Nowacka (2015: 238) observe that early marriage and pregnancy affect girl's empowerment and education opportunities. In this regard, early pregnancy increases gender gaps at the secondary-school-level and, in countries where adolescent fertility rates are high, fewer girls enrol in secondary school. This increases the gender gap in enrolment, school retention, and completion rates of girls (Ferrant & Nowacka 2015). Thus, a higher incidence of teenage pregnancy might be associated with greater inequality in secondary school enrolment and ultimately affects how females in society access opportunities that might improve their livelihood.

Ferrant and Nowacka (2015) contend that reducing and eradicating both early marriage and teenage pregnancies is crucial for protecting girls' rights and supporting them to benefit from empowerment opportunities. Esquivel (2016) argues that the term 'women's empowerment' is extensive and changes over time. Women's empowerment can mean different things to different people or organisations (EGM 2016; Esquivel 2016). Some definitions can be overtly political, and others prudently technical (EGM 2016). Although actual empowerment requires unequal power relations to be altered, donor agencies tend to support an apolitical usage of the term, in which power relations might actually persist exclusively or fundamentally untouched (Mosedale 2014). Once used in this manner, the concept of empowerment could be a process of safeguarding the interests of the dominant group (Mosedale 2014). In other words, women might become empowered without power.

Therefore, in the eyes of the EGM (2016) report, women's empowerment goes beyond the impression that women are empowered when their competencies and aptitudes are enriched or when they are able to contest with men for jobs. Empowerment entails secure livelihoods, the capacity to relish their (women) human rights, a decrease in the unpaid work that hinders the enjoyment of rights, and meaningful participation of women in their societies (World Bank 2011b; EGM 2016). UN Women (2013) explains

that women empowerment includes the eradication of discrimination in access to resources and productive assets, with explicit reference to land. Thus, empowerment would put emphasis on equality and equity of opportunities between men and women (World Bank 2015). While equality might mean sameness in treatment between men and women, equity entails fairness in treatment. Equity demands that the treatment may not necessary be the same as long as the evils of the previous systems that favoured men are not reversed or addressed and that both women and men could wholly and truthfully benefit. It applies particularly to the marginalised, poor, and vulnerable and is an imperative to ensure that they receive economic resources, access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property and access to natural resources and financial services (World Bank 2015).

The EGM (2016) report underscores the point that WEE is much more than levelling the playing field as far as participation in the market economy is concerned. Agenda 2030 states that women should also have equal access to decision-making, economic resources, employment, leadership, political participation, and quality education (Kabeer & Natali 2013). Moreover, Agenda 2030 emphasises equality, assuming that equalising access to the means of production (regardless of its quantity) would be enough to achieve WEE (World Bank 2011a & 2015). Thus, this study also explored how women in Makoni district have been economically empowered through the land reform programme.

Disparities between men and women increase their poverty levels despite the assertion that gender equality could be key to addressing global poverty (Lefton 2013). Lefton (2013) argues that poverty is a gendered practise, resulting in more women than men being poor. However, the percentage of people living in poverty tends to vary from country to country and from region to region. For example, the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO 2010) notes that in Sub-Saharan Africa, the percentages range from 30 to 60% while in Asia it is about 50%. These variations are largely cultural depending on societal expectations. FAO (2010) indicates that while there could be noteworthy dissimilarities between countries, overall women in Africa are generally poor as compared to men, which ultimately defines women's access to sustainable livelihoods activities.

Given the wide gender disparities, Lefton (2013) delineates efforts made by world leaders in their bid to ensure gender equality and equity. In this regard, several regional and international conventions and conferences have been held in an effort to address the gender disparity gap. These include the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) of 1979; the Beijing Declaration and its Platform for Action of 1995; the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of 2000, and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). In addition, the Protocol for the African Union Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa of 2003; and the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development of 2007 outline policy initiatives intended to end gender inequality in access to means for socio-economic development. Commenting on the protocol to the African Charter on human and peoples' rights on women's rights in Africa, which became known as the Maputo declaration, Amede and Whalen (2015) affirm that based on this protocol, various governments were swift to assume political will and recommend broad-minded platforms for gender inclusion in societal activities. However, the norm is not often corresponded by significant engagements to alter gender realities on the ground. These African states are endowed with an obligation for executing, observing, and assessing the protocol, but instead relegate the responsibility to other national gender organisations (Amede & Whalen 2015).

Amede and Whalen (2015) assert that, in the last few years, several states have undersigned the protocol and tried to adapt it to domestic circumstances. Some of these adaptations led to controversy. Thus, significant efforts have been dedicated to securing the enshrinement of noticeable provisions into national constitutions of various countries, Zimbabwe included, as noted in the *Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (Act No 20 of 2013)*.

Zimbabwe participated in these conventions and is a signatory to all of them (Matondi, 2010). Matondi (2010) says the SADC Protocol of 2007 was designed with WEE in mind, to eliminate discrimination and to achieve gender equality and equity through the implementation of gender-responsive policies and programmes. This was expected to harmonise national and regional policy implementation in this regard. Hence, the SADC protocol fits the goals of WEE by stressing the need for gender mainstreaming in policies and programs of member states. Matondi (2010) and

Mutopo (2014) confirm that the FTLRP was a gendered experience, with the twist that fewer women than men benefited from the exercise, despite the fact that the Zimbabwean government ratified the SADC protocol. This gender discrepancy had a negative bearing on women's participation and access to sustainable livelihood activities (Matondi 2010; Mutopo 2014).

As shown in the foregoing, one area that needs special redress is access to resources, especially land, since marginalized women largely depend on land for their livelihoods (Hoogeveen & Kinsey 2001). Doss, Summerfield, and Tsikata (2014) assert that, since 2008, a flow in large-scale land occupations, or land seizure, has been taking place in developing countries. In Zimbabwe, the land acquisition had started a little earlier, around 2000. However, Doss, Summerfield, and Tsikata (2014) opine that the land reform exercise had gendered effects as few women benefited from land acquisition, as compared to men. Importantly, land is related to food security and other sustainable livelihood activities. Spieldoch (2011) concludes that women and girls make up 60% of the world's chronically hungry and little progress has been made in ensuring that the equal right to food for women is enshrined in the CEDAW.

Gender equality is viewed as instrumental to ending malnutrition and hunger (Spieldoch 2011). This is based on the observation that women tend to be more responsible for food preparation and childcare within the family. In addition, women are more likely to use their earnings for food and their children's needs (Singh, Kumar & Kumar 2015). Thus, Zimbabwe demonstrated its commitment to the achievement of gender equity and women empowerment as part of the MDGs by focusing on education, employment, and resource distribution. Article 17 of the Zimbabwean Constitution (2013) states that *"the state must promote the full participation of women in all spheres of the Zimbabwean society on the basis of equality with men"*. Specifically, Sections 14 and 17 focus on gender equity in the land reform process. However, since 2013, when Zimbabwe's new constitution was adopted, it is unclear whether the land reform has resulted in a substantial increase in land ownership for women or improved their livelihoods.

Zimbabwe's land reform was carried out in two phases. The first phase stretched from 1980 to 1997 and was based on a willing-seller/willing-buyer approach in line with the

government's policy of national reconciliation and the restrictive Lancaster House Constitution agreed to in 1979 just before Zimbabwe's independence (Masiwa 2004). This first phase of the programme was financially supported by Britain. The Lancaster House Constitution was restrictive in the sense that white farmers had to voluntarily sell their farms on their own terms which then made it difficult for the government to acquire land for landless blacks. This, in fact, slowed down the land acquisition and redistribution exercise.

The perceived reluctance of white farmers to release more land for this model, the state fallout with the West, and the political threat of loss of power for the ruling party were factors that saw the emergence of FTLRP (Mutopo 2014). Mutopo, Manjengwa, and Chiweshe (2014) argue that the violent, political nature of this redistribution period impacted the number of female land recipients. Due to the slow process of land acquisition, the Zimbabwean government initiated a process of radical land reform premised on extensive compulsory land acquisition and redistribution which commenced around 2000 (Moyo 2004). This second phase or FTLRP displaced former white farm owners via the enactment of the *Rural Land Occupiers (Protection from Eviction) Act of June 2001* (Moyo 2014). This protected those who had occupied land up to February 2001 from eviction in the next 12 months and suspended the application of court orders for eviction. The primary objective of the FTLRP was to speed up the redistribution of land by forcibly taking it away from those who owned vast tracks of land and these included white commercial farmers and private companies (Moyo 2004).

The land acquisition was based on two models. The first was Model A1 which was meant to reduce land pressure in overpopulated communal lands (Gaidzanwa 1995). Moyo (2004) notes that the size of Model A1 farms varied from 2 hectares to 20 hectares. Model A1 was largely meant for subsistence farming. Conversely, Model A2 was meant for small- to large-scale commercial farming exceeding 20 hectares.

Questions have been asked about the extent to which Zimbabwe's FTLRP benefited and empowered women economically. Women received far less land than men. In this regard, Goebel (2005) says that only 20% of the 300 000 A1 settlers were women, while Mgugu (2008) indicates that an estimated 18% of the total number of those who

were settled in the Model A1, were women. This then placed women at a disadvantage in terms of access to land, which would ultimately affect women access to sustainable livelihood activities.

Phase 1 of the land reform was largely viewed as orderly and uncontentious (Sachikonye 2004). In addition, women's empowerment discourse was largely absent during this phase. However, there was an attempt to address this anomaly during the Phase 2 land reform exercise, although not much in actual practice had been done (Sachikonye 2004). Given this background, the researcher deliberately focused on Phase 2 of the FTLRP. In particular, the extent to which Phase 2 of the FTLRP economically empowered women and improved their livelihoods. Additionally, the researcher focused on Phase 2 because it was the talked about by both supporters and critics. In fact, an oft-quoted dictum by supporters of the land reform was that land is the economy and the economy is land (Sachikonye 2004). Yet there was scarcity of information on how the land reform brought about economic transformation especially for the marginalised rural women. For example, a study by Mutopo, Manjengwa, and Chiweshe (2014) on land reform only looked at land ownership and a few benefits such as income generated from the land. However, women's economic empowerment is much more than simply transferring land ownership and enabling income-generation.

Golla, Malhotra, Nanda, and Mehra (2011) suggest that several conditions must be in place to ensure the successful economic empowerment of women. For example, for women to be empowered, they must be able to make their own independent decisions about how to use land as well as making other economic decisions. Women need to have the necessary skills and resources for them to advance and improve their livelihoods as part of economic empowerment.

Oxfam (2013) assert that the indicators of improved livelihoods include the adoption of improved agricultural techniques, increased revenue generated from sales of products, improved household income and nutrition, increased asset wealth, and improved self-confidence and community participation. It is important to note that there is a symbiotic relationship between economic empowerment and improved livelihoods through land ownership. However, the marginalisation of women cannot be eliminated

by only providing assets such as land to women because this is a limited approach (Cornwall & Rivas 2015). Cornwall and Rivas (2015: 410) opine that "*Individuals and groups may acquire assets and institutions, may improve their governance, but these elements in themselves do not necessarily produce empowerment. Liberal empowerment is geared towards benefiting individual women rather than transforming the shared situation of women; 'liberating' empowerment calls for forms of collective analysis and action that are missing from the 'invest in girls and women' approach*". Therefore, to effectively bring about empowerment, Cornwall and Rivas (2015: 410) call for "*placing at the centre of the new global framework the concepts of accountability, inclusion and non-discrimination*".

Cornwall and Rivas (2015) call for the use of a human rights framework as a powerful set of entry points around which to refocus that engagement and through which to build alliances with others to ensure authentic empowerment. In the end, if women are allocated more land, in addition to receiving more farming inputs, agricultural production would increase. This is assuming that there are favourable climatic conditions and might, therefore, improve people's livelihoods as well as ensuring food security.

This study deliberately focused not only on the acquisition of land by women but instead on a comprehensive notion of women's economic empowerment embedded in sustainable livelihoods. Integrating women's economic empowerment with the notion of sustainable livelihoods is important because the former works to help women to generate incomes, which in turn leads to gains across social, political, economic, and other dimensions of human development. When women's abilities to generate an income, to gain skills and knowledge, increase their access to resources (such as land and water), and to take decisions are increased, livelihood systems can improve due to women's vital role in the household. If the whole household is empowered through better livelihoods, the household will then move closer to empowerment that addresses accountability, inclusion, non-discrimination and human rights for all as advocated by Cornwall and Rivas (2015).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Women's empowerment for sustainable livelihood due to the land reform in Zimbabwe has been a bone of contention among scholars (Sachikonye 2004; Mutopo 2014, and Mutopo *et al* 2014, among others). The argument is that fewer women compared to men benefited from the FTLRP, despite the desire of the Zimbabwean government to address this gendered anomaly. How did the land reform exercise empower the few women who benefited from it? This question impelled the researcher to discuss the extent of women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods through the land reform in Zimbabwe. Access to land by Zimbabwean black people, despite their gender difference, has been viewed to be the major contributory factor in addressing poverty challenges, as the people would embark on sustainable livelihood activities (Mutopo 2014).

The fate of the Zimbabwean people to improve their livelihood has been thought to lie largely in their access to land. Despite the FTLRP being described as favouring men and being chaotic, leading to the collapse of the economy that left many Zimbabweans unemployed and becoming economic refugees (Richardson 2004; Rukuni, Taonezvi, Eicher, Munyuki-Hungwe & Matodi 2006). This study serves as a basis for exploring the extent to which women have been empowered to engage in sustainable livelihoods as a result of their access to land from the Phase 2 of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe.

With respect to gender equity and empowerment resulting from the FTLRP, again the results are inconsistent (Mutopo, 2014). Mutopo *et al* (2014) and Mutopo (2014), contend that some women have been empowered as a result of the land reform while researchers such as Moyo (2004) and Scoones *et al* (2010) argue to the contrary, asserting that it was only the men who benefited. Given the ensuing debate on women's access to land, this study therefore examined how the FTLRP in Zimbabwe (specifically the second phase) economically empowered female beneficiaries by improving their livelihoods, by expounding whether the land reform economically empowered women land beneficiaries with respect to key components of economic empowerment as defined by Eyben, Kabeer and Cornwall (2008), Golla *et al* (2011) and Berman (2013) and more if the land reform significantly improved the livelihoods of female land reform beneficiaries.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this study was to explore the extent to which Phase 2 of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe, economically empowered women and improved their livelihoods.

The secondary objectives of the study were to:

- i. Analyse the extent to which income-generating activities, skills and assets improved women's participation in decision-making processes after the Phase 2 of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe.
- ii. Discuss the various support structures and resources for WEE after the FTLRP in Zimbabwe.
- iii. Discuss the form of assistance which was rendered by external partners towards rural women land beneficiaries.
- iv. Identify strategies which could be adopted to strengthen women's economic empowerment in Zimbabwe after the FTLRP.

1.5 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

This study is a contribution to the existing body of knowledge on the extent to which the land reform programme in Zimbabwe, specifically in Makoni district, empowered women with sustainable livelihoods. This is mainly because, whilst there had been a lot of policy designs, statutes, and proposals on the importance of gender equity in terms to access to land, the issue of fairness between women and men in this access to land has received limited attention (Mutopo 2014).

The research adds to the understanding of the importance of designing laws and policies that promote and safeguard women's access to land in a bid to improve their disposable income, nutrition, participation in decision-making processes, and asset base.

1.6 THE CHOSEN RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The researcher adopted a qualitative research approach, in order to enable the presentation of thick description (Denzin & Lincoln 2008; Bowen 2008) of the phenomena that was studied. The qualitative approach provided the participants an opportunity to air their feelings, perceptions, and attitude towards the FTLRP in Zimbabwe, without being restricted on what to say by the researcher. In order to achieve this, focus group discussions and interviews were conducted in order to solicit information on the effect of the FTLRP on women's economic empowerment. Thus, a qualitative approach assisted the researcher in understanding how women land beneficiaries interpreted their economic benefits from the land reform programme.

With respect to the research design, the study employed a case study design based on the Makoni district. Yin (2009) notes that a case study is an in-depth study of a particular situation rather than a sweeping survey study. It is a study method used to narrow down a broad field of research into one easily manageable study topic and focus area. Yin (2009) advises researchers to be guided by factors such as criticalness, extremeness, typicalness, and revelatory power. Overall, these terms refer to choosing a case study that is unique, outstanding, and capable of revealing key features the researcher wants to study.

The researcher chose Makoni district as it represented one of the districts in Manicaland that experienced massive land acquisition by black Zimbabweans. The district largely lies in region 1/2, which has good arable land for agriculture and more so, conducive climatic conditions that could be ideal for farming purposes. Rainfall patterns within Makoni district is between 750mm to 1000mm per annum (Makoni District 2012). The climatic conditions enable intensive livestock production and the growing of crops such as maize, tobacco, and ground nuts among them to be practiced.

The population of the study consisted of women who benefited from the land reform programme and were allocated Model A1 farms. The researcher's preliminary findings noted that 497 women were allocated Model A1 farms during Phase 2 of the FTLRP.

From the population of 497 women, a sample of 30 Model A1 female farm owners were selected. This implied a 6% sample.

Model A1 female farmers, for the purposes of sampling, excluded female farm workers or labourers. Thus, the inclusion criterion is that the respondent must be a female Model A1 farmer who is documented to be a beneficiary of the FTLRP. By the very nature of Model A1 farms, this largely included women who practised subsistence farming.

Since the study approach was qualitative, the researcher used purposive sampling (Yin 2009; Creswell 2012). Purposive sampling in this study involved selecting the research participants who were Model A1 women farm owners who benefited from Phase 2 of the land reform. The land officers were included as participants because they had up-to-date data related to land reform in Makoni District. Additionally, and taking heed of Yin (2009), the researcher selected Model A1 women landowners whom were thought to provide rich and relevant data.

The data collection instruments for the study were two interview guides designed by the researcher. Female farmers participated in focus group discussions, while land officers participated in interviews. In addition, the study involved an analysis of documents that were provided by Ministry of Lands and Agriculture.

The data collection instruments focused on several dimensions of WEE described by Eyben, Kabeer and Cornwall (2008), Golla *et al* (2011) and Berman (2013). Items on sustainable livelihoods interviews and focus group discussion focused on five important types of capital assets, which could incorporate human, financial, or physical assets among others. In this case, human assets focused on the personnel that was needed for sustainable livelihoods to succeed, financial assets referred to the money required and physical assets were the tangible assets, for instance, properties and equipment that was needed to promote women's economic empowerment due to the FTLRP in Zimbabwe.

1.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis of data involved reading through the interview and focus group discussion transcripts and data from the documents. The researcher then developed themes that emerged from the data. After the findings were compiled, the researcher asked the participants to check their responses to see if they accurately reflected their thoughts. Denzin and Lincoln (2008) view this approach as member checking, which can be also termed respondent or participant validation. To ensure trustworthiness – which is critical in qualitative research – the researcher strived for data saturation and thematic exhaustion which he believed enhanced confidence in the research findings. In order to enhance the trustworthiness of data, the researcher triangulated the data obtained from the field work with documentary evidence from reviewed literature. The researcher continued to engage different research participants until no new information was obtained.

Details on the methodology was given in Chapter 3 of the dissertation.

1.8 THE CHOSEN THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Two related theoretical frameworks were selected – namely women's empowerment and sustainable livelihoods. These two frameworks enabled the researcher to apply a conceptual lens that was critical in analysing rural women's empowerment through the land reform programme. As observed by Singh *et al* (2015) and IFAD (2016), empowering people involves increasing as well as diversifying people's means of survival which is their livelihood. As people's livelihoods continue to improve, their empowerment is enhanced. Therefore, as noted by IFAD (2016), when rural women are empowered with land as a physical asset, then other assets would be developed through agricultural productivity on the land. However, as emphasised by Singh *et al* (2015), apart from land, women would need other essential assets such capital and farming implements. A good start could then bring more cumulative advantages through the virtuous cycle (Worldview Mission 2015). A detailed analysis of the theoretical framework is presented in Chapter 2.

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (2013) pointed out that women in Zimbabwe made up about 51% of the population. However, despite women being the majority, Gaidzanwa (1995) notes that unequal power and gender relations have prevented women from accessing land, despite Mutopo *et al* (2014) arguing to the contrary, saying some women benefited, especially in respect to land ownership and income generation. Ghimire (2001), concludes that the FTLRP has been disastrous and has resulted in unemployment and more poverty, especially among Zimbabwean women.

The present study examined WEE as related to:

- Women's ability to oversee the significance related to income generated from the farming activities;
- Financial capital, such as loans;
- Freedom to allocate time to specific farming and domestic duties;
- Power to make decisions regarding land, livestock, and agricultural equipment and to borrow money for agricultural purposes;
- The capacity of women to make independent decisions related to farming inputs and activities;
- Human capital such as education, skills, and training;
- Physical capital, such as farming machinery;
- Social capital, such as availability of networks and advisors;
- Traditional norms and policies that empower or disempower women; and
- The capacity of women to assume leadership positions within the community and agricultural organisations (Eyben *et al* 2008; Golla *et al* 2011; Berman 2013).

As observed by Berman (2013), women's empowerment is an important strategy for accelerating economic growth in any country. It is often argued that, without women's advancement, economic development will not take place. In fact, the United Nations (October 2011:1) contends that "*Without women's empowerment and gender equality, societies will not be able to achieve the Millennium Development Goals*". Therefore, this study explored how women from Makoni

district were economically empowered through the FTLRP in Zimbabwe for them to engage in sustainable livelihood activities.

1.10 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Key concepts that are found in the study are defined in this section.

1.10.1 Assets

In this study, assets include stocks of physical, human, financial, and social resources that can be attained, developed, enhanced, and transferred from one generation to the other (Moteff & Parfomak 2004).

1.10.2 Women's economic empowerment

Based on the definition by Golla *et al* (2011), a woman is economically empowered when she has both the ability to succeed and advance economically and the power to make and act on economic decisions. In the context of land reform, women should be able to improve themselves through land utilisation. To succeed and advance economically through land acquisition, women need requisite assets for them to engage in sustainable livelihood activities.

1.10.3 Livelihoods

This refers to a way of making or securing a living or necessities of life such as farming, fishing, and hunting. It can be viewed as acquiring assets and capabilities as well as activities needed to ensure worthwhile living (Moyo *et al* 2005).

1.10.4 Sustainable livelihoods

Having assets and capabilities as well as partaking in activities needed to ensure a worthwhile living on a continuous basis without harming the environment (Barrett 2016).

1.10.5 Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP)

This refers to the second phase of the accelerated, compulsory land acquisition, and redistribution that was implemented by the government of Zimbabwe from 2000 (Scoones, Marongwe, Mavedzenge, Murimbarimba, Mahenehene & Sukume 2011). The first phase, spanning from 1980 to 1997, was based on a willing-seller/willing-buyer approach. This fitted the government's policy of national reconciliation and the restrictive Lancaster House Constitution. In 1997 the Zimbabwean government started with radical land reform with entailed extensive and compulsory land acquisition and redistribution. The FTLRP thus represented a radical change from the previous approach (Moyo 2004). The programme witnessed the displacement of the former white farm owners by the landless peasants that included war veterans.

1.10.6 Model A1

This refers to land allocated to the generality of the black landless people with villagised and self-contained plots varying from 2 to 20 hectares (Mgugu 2008). The main objective of Model A1 farms was to reduce land pressure in the overpopulated communal lands. Model A1 farms were meant to provide land as an important asset for the marginalized or resource-poor rural inhabitants. In addition, Model A1 farms meant to address poverty as well as decongesting rural areas.

1.10.7 Model A2

This refers to land allocated to black beneficiaries for commercial farming purposes varying from small-scale farms to large commercial farms with farm sizes above 20 hectares (Mgugu 2008).

1.10.8 Women farmers

In this study the term only refers to those women who benefited from the land reform program as Model A1 farmers (Chigumira 2010). It does not include female farm workers or labourers who actually work on the farms owned by the female landowners.

1.10.9 Commercial farmers

These are farmers who grew crops and/or keep animals for sale (Marongwe 2007). This study will not involve commercial farmers whether female or male. The focus will be on subsistence farmers who may end up selling their produce after realizing a surplus. A1 farmers are generally defined as subsistence farmers.

1.10.10 Subsistence farmers

In this study, these are the women farmers settled on Model A1 farms (Marongwe 2007). The main objective for these subsistence farmers is to grow crops as well as to keep animals for their own livelihoods which include food security. Of course, they can diversify their farming activities at a limited scale.

1.10.11 Beneficiaries of land reform programmes

Unless otherwise stated, in this study, these include women who were allocated Model A1 farms (Alao 2010).

1.10.12 Model A1 farmer

A female beneficiary of FTLRP is usually involved in subsistence farming. This opposed to Model A2 farmer who is a beneficiary of the FTLRP but is primarily involved in commercial farming.

1.11 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

In this first chapter, the researcher describes the background to the study. It noted that despite some positive results of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe, the programme has been condemned by some scholars regards it as largely responsible for the country's economic collapse (Goebel 2005). The first chapter contains the statement of the problem, the research objectives, the significance of the study and definitions of key terms in the study.

The review of related literature is presented in Chapter 2. This includes the historical development of the land reform programme in Zimbabwe as well as the theoretical framework of the study. The chapter ends with a description of the gaps in the literature which necessitated this study.

Chapter 3 deals with the research methodology, covering the research approach, research design and related data-gathering procedures and instruments. Data presentation and its analysis are covered in Chapter 4, while Chapter 5 summarises the entire study with a view to drawing some major conclusions.

1.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter is a background to the study, delineates the research problem, research objectives, chosen theoretical framework, research methodology, the significance of the study and definitions of key concepts used in the study. The next chapter provides a review of related literature on women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods through the land reform in Zimbabwe. In the next chapter the researcher also describes the theoretical lens that guided this study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher discusses the historical background to land reform in Zimbabwe, in particular the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) which was the main focus of the study. Importantly, the researcher examines the effects of the land reform on the economy in general and on women's empowerment in particular. The researcher notes the gaps in reviewed literature that justified the need for this particular study. Finally, the theoretical frameworks of economic empowerment and sustainable livelihoods are discussed with a view to anchoring the study.

2.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE LAND REFORM IN ZIMBABWE

Worldwide, land reform has been a centre of contestation for many generations (Moyo & Yeros 2005). The Europeans were the first to occupy foreign land in Africa, the Americas, and beyond. The so-called 'Scramble for Africa' meant that Britain, Portugal, France, and Belgium – among others – colonised African states (Fisher 2010). Zimbabwe was not spared from colonisation. It was colonised by Britain under the leadership of British South African Company (BSAC) in 1890. The British made laws to facilitate the acquisition of land from the indigenous blacks, such as the *1930 Land Apportionment Act*, *Land Husbandry Act* and the *Land Tenure Act* (Zikhali 2008).

The question of landownership has been a source of socio-economic and political conflicts since Zimbabwe's colonisation, both among black communities and between white settlers and the black rural communities (Moyo 2004). The land conflict was exacerbated in 1965 when the white minority government unilaterally declared its independence from Britain. Thereafter, white Rhodesians seized control of the vast majority of good agricultural land, leaving black peasants to eke a living from marginal "tribal reserves" (Human Rights Watch 2002). These tribal reserves were termed tribal trust land. In fact, the land question precipitated the armed struggle in Zimbabwe between the black nationalists and the white minority government of Ian Douglas

Smith. A protracted war of liberation ended white minority rule through a negotiated settlement brokered by the British government in the 1979 Lancaster House Agreement, and then in the elections of 1980 (Zikhali 2008).

However, land reform remained a thorny issue. The Human Rights Watch (2002) points out that the new black government was bound by "sunset clauses" in the Lancaster House Agreement that gave special protection to white Zimbabweans for the first ten years of independence, in particular the forcible redistribution of farms. In addition, changes to these clauses were prohibited for at least a decade. More specifically, these included provisions that the new government would not engage in any compulsory land acquisition and that when land was confiscated, the government would pay adequate compensation for the property (Zikhali 2008). The British government gave assurances that financial assistance for land redistribution would be covered in part by aid from Britain, America, and West Germany. Land distribution would take place in terms of a willing-buyer/willing-seller principle (Alao 2012). Based on this agreement, white farmers were not to be pressurised or coerced if they decided not to sell their farms (Alao 2012).

Despite financial assistance from Britain, the first phase of Zimbabwe's land reform programme was generally viewed as unsuccessful (Makura-Paradza 2010). For example, during this period the government of Zimbabwe was only able to acquire 7.41 million acres to resettle landless blacks out of the 81 million hectares of arable land. The acquired land during this period was redistributed to about 50 000 households (Makura-Paradza 2010). In terms of agricultural livelihoods, this transfer was also unsuccessful as many small-scale farmers did not have the skills or tools to make this land redistribution profitable. The first phase of the programme was supported by Britain financially and it was framed as the "willing seller, willing buyer" model in the 1980s. The perceived reluctance of white farmers to release more land for this model and the state fallout with the West, plus the political threat of loss of power for the ruling party were factors that saw the emergence of FTLRP. The violent, political nature of this redistribution period impacted the number of female recipients of land.

When the entrenched constitutional conditions stipulated by the Lancaster House Agreement expired in the early 1990s, the Zimbabwe Government delineated several ambitious new plans for a massive land reform programme (Fisher 2010). Fisher (2010) notes that the Zimbabwean government proposed a new national land policy which was promulgated as the *Zimbabwean Land Acquisition Act of 1992*. This new law empowered the government to acquire any land as it saw fit. Of course, the proposed acquisition was only going to take place after financial compensation. In this period, tobacco planters and farmers became wealthy, but most black families did not really benefit. Land acquisition became a tool of political patronage.

This escalated in the 2000s, when war veterans vehemently presented their demands for land owned by white farmers to be handed to them based on the promises made during the liberation war (Scoones *et al* 2011). Fisher (2010) opine that politicians took advantage of the situation and echoed the need for an accelerated land reform programme. This resulted in what is called the FTLRP. It was based on popular seizure led by war veterans who were closely associated with the ruling party (Scoones *et al* 2011). The FTLRP was designed to be undertaken in an accelerated manner relying on domestic resources. This led to a severe drop in agricultural production and other economic disruptions. In addition, the human rights violations and bad press led Britain, the European Union, the United States, and other Western allies to impose sanctions on the Zimbabwean government, leading to the collapse of the Zimbabwean economy (Scoones *et al* 2011). The results have been disastrous and have resulted in widespread food shortages.

The Zimbabwean land reform programme was conducted in two phases:

- Model A1, viewed as the decongestion model for the landless people, was meant to benefit 160 000 beneficiaries from among the poor (Zikhali 2008).
- Model A2, aimed at creating a cadre of 51 000 small- to medium-scale black indigenous commercial farmers (Zikhali 2008). It is, however, the focus of this study to explore how Zimbabwean women benefited from this land acquisition programme, resulting in them engaging in sustainable livelihood activities.

From the official government documents, the identification of land for compulsory acquisition was meant to be coordinated by a National Land Identification Committee, chaired by the Vice-President's office (Zikhali 2008). At the provincial level, Provincial Land Identification Committees chaired by the Provincial Administrators were responsible for coordinating implementation. At the district level, committees were chaired by the District Administrator (DA). Representatives of the rural district councils (RDCs), traditional leaders, and the War Veterans Association were all members of these committees (Zikhali 2008).

New legislation replaced the original laws providing for the FTLRP. *The Rural Land Occupiers (Protection from Eviction) Act of June 2001* protects those who had occupied land up to February 2001 from eviction for a period of twelve months (Zikhali 2008).

Moyo (2014), in November 2001, says that President Mugabe used his presidential powers to amend the *Land Acquisition Act*, with retroactive effect to May 2000. Ownership of designated land was transferred directly to the acquiring authority with ninety-day eviction notices. The "Section 8" notice under the Amended Act gave the government the right to stop farming operations on any resettled farm (Moyo 2014).

The FTLRP, running between 2000 and 2002, was a radical pro-poor land distribution effort. Moyo (2004) argues that it addressed the country's legacy of historic injustice and social and racial inequities and enabled broad-based economic participation by Zimbabwean blacks. However, the farm workers were marginalised by the FTLRP. Large numbers of farm workers were laid off from paid work, yet many of those farm workers were not among the groups targeted to benefit from land redistribution (Scoones *et al* 2011).

The land audit of 2003 found that 134 452 families had been allocated land during the FTLRP. However, government critics disagreed with the report. For example, Chigumira (2010) labelled the audit a political smokescreen. The Southern Africa Documentation and Cooperation Centre criticised the report's silence on those who received more than one farm in violation of the country's "one man one farm" policy. Even so, the audit clearly confirmed that, based on official figures, the number of

families who received land during the FTLRP period is much lower than 300 000 families (Chigumira 2010).

Despite Moyo (2011) asserting that 168 671 families received land during the FTLRP phase, of which 145 775 were landless families that received smaller farms and 22 896 were commercial black farmers, Moyo (2011) does not explore the extent to which black women were economically empowered by the FTLRP. In the next sections, the researcher summarised the effects of the land reform in Zimbabwe.

2.3 EFFECTS OF THE LAND REFORM ON AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

Marongwe (2007) feels that the land reform and the take-over of large-scale commercial farms had no major impact on overall maize production. Research by Moyo and Sukume (2004) indicate that agricultural production fell by 22% in 2002 compared to an average annual growth rate of 4.7% between 1990 and 2000. Crop production was also affected by drought during this period. No clear picture emerged as to how the resettlement decongested communal areas or reduced environmental problems resulting from overcrowding and overuse. This is important because demand for land among the poor is still high (Moyo & Sukume 2004).

Since 2000, Zimbabwe has been experiencing food shortages except in the last few years since the unity government came into power in 2009. The main reasons advanced for poor agricultural performance are the lack of financial and technical support systems for resettled farmers (Marongwe 2007). Again, Marongwe's (2007) analysis does not differentiate between male and female resettled farmers. The researcher contended that female farmers could have been more negatively impacted by the land reform exercise due to pre-existing gender inequalities. Zimbabwean male black farmers could have been more economically empowered than their female counterparts due to the influence of the patriarchal system (Mutopo 2011).

For example, a study by Matondi (2012) shows that the area put under crop has generally increased as a result of the land reform. However, this has not always translated to increased crop productivity among the general populace and more so among female farmers. This study, therefore, sought to explore the extent to which

female farmers were economically empowered by the land reform for them to engage in sustainable livelihood activities.

2.4 EFFECTS OF THE LAND REFORM ON THE ZIMBABWEAN ECONOMY

Musemwa (2011) highlights that those opposed to the land reform in Zimbabwe contend that the programme had negative effects on the country's economy. In response to the land reform, the government of the United States imposed sanctions on Zimbabwe. This included a credit freeze in 2001 through the *Zimbabwe Democracy and Economic Recovery Act* (ZDERA) of 2001 which collapsed the trade surplus in 2002. While there was a trade surplus of \$322 million in 2001, in 2002 the credit freeze led to a trade deficit of \$18 million, which grew rapidly in subsequent years (Musemwa 2011).

Before the land reform, Zimbabwe's economy was well-integrated with robust linkages between commercial farming and manufacturing industry (Moyo 2004). In fact, agriculture was the backbone of Zimbabwe's industry. Moyo (2004) observes that commercial farming used to play an important role in the rapid expansion of Zimbabwe's tourism industry through the conversion of marginal farmland into wildlife habitat.

While the land reform was aimed at addressing colonial imbalances in land ownership in the country, it has been criticised for disrupting commercial agriculture and for the disorderly and chaotic manner in which it was implemented (Sachikonye 2004). Theron (2011) argues that the FTLRP, coupled with agricultural and economic policies and strained relations with the international community, led to a dramatic economic decline. As a result, since 2000, Zimbabwe's economy has been facing serious problems characterised by hyper-inflation, foreign currency and commodity shortages, hoarding of goods and cash, and the erosion of incomes (Theron 2011). The inflation rate reached as high as 231% in 2009 (Hanke & Kwok 2009). Theron (2011) argues that increased political conflict since 2000, and the reduction of external international support since 1998 exacerbated the economic crisis and political tensions.

The present study sought to examine the extent to which marginalised women who benefited from land reform through Model A1 really empowered themselves economically. Sachikonye (2004) asserts that the women's empowerment discourse was largely absent in Phase 1 and became a major issue during Phase 2. Women's empowerment during Phase 2 became controversial, because it was more rhetorical than factual (Sachikonye 2004). The study, therefore, sought to find more evidence of how women were indeed economically empowered by the land reform.

As noted by Golla, Malhotra, and Mehra (2011) several conditions must be in place to ensure the successful economic empowerment of women. For example, for women to be empowered, they must be able to make independent decisions about land use and other economic resources. Women also need to have the necessary skills and resources for them to advance and improve their livelihoods as part of economic empowerment. Oxfam (2013), posit that the indicators of improved livelihoods include the adoption of improved agricultural techniques, increased revenue generated from sales of products, improved household income and nutrition, increased asset wealth, and improved self-confidence and community participation. It is important to note there is a symbiotic relationship between economic empowerment and improved livelihoods through land ownership.

2.5 THE GENDERED FTLRP AND WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT

There is a lot of debate on how the land reform tried to address the issue of land imbalances, but little has been done to explore the gendered processes of the land reform in Zimbabwe. The debates centred on basic ownership of the land and production levels (Mutopo *et al* 2014). Moyo (2004) opines that the land reform did not adequately address gender inequities and disparities in Zimbabwe, despite the role women play in subsistence agriculture. However, it is important to note that gender imbalances in Zimbabwe are a result of pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial customs, culture and gender stereotypes and more so the patriarchal nature of the Zimbabwean communities (Mutopo *et al* 2014).

The provincial Land Information Management Systems database for Manicaland province states that "women constitute about 14.7% of the total model A1 beneficiaries

and 9% of the model A2 beneficiaries” (Government of Zimbabwe 2010). Such statistics suggest that women were not given priority in land allocation. This trend has negative implications for food security, women’s household disposable income, assets, and nutrition base. In turn, this disables other investments that women, as key land users, can make (Scoones 2011). Scoones (2011) adds that the FTLRP in Zimbabwe did not address gender imbalances in land distribution. In many cases, men benefited more than women and more land-offer letters were addressed to men, even in cases where the application was made by a married couple or by the wife (Scoones *et al* 2011; Scoones 2014; Mashanda 2015). Although one might argue that, in the Zimbabwean context, women benefited indirectly as their spouses benefited from the land reform. Zimbabwean inheritance law stipulates that the surviving spouse (wife/husband) is the heiress/heir to his wife/husband’s property and land. Thus, women could be core owners of their husbands’ land although their names might not appear on the offer letters. However, this assertion could be a distortion, as it assumes that all women in the community are married or have a spouse or partner.

Karonga-Mandoga (2016) opines that despite the existence of inheritance law as enshrined in the Zimbabwean Constitution, a lot of women might not be aware of these existing laws or, worse still, be empowered to interpret the law.

2.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study was guided by the theory of empowerment and by the sustainable livelihoods framework. The researcher chose these two frameworks because there is a lot of convergence in their facets and principles especially regarding the empowerment of the rural women through agricultural production. Moyo (2004), Moyo *et al* (2004), Scoones *et al* (2011), Scoones (2014) and Mashanda (2015) focus on what McBride (2014) calls an instrumentalist approach to women’s empowerment. McBride (2014) argues that the instrumentalist approach or the Women-in-Development (WID) approach assumes that women’s acquisition of assets, education or entrepreneurial skills will culminate in women’s empowerment and economic growth. However, McBride (2014:104) argues that the Gender-and-Development (GAD) approach contends that “*that gender inequality is the result not only of material circumstances and gender gaps in capacity and education, but also due to social,*

cultural, and institutional norms that restrict women's choices". McBride (2014) states that GAD scholars have convincingly contended that women's empowerment is more than providing women with skills. It is also about promoting social norms that allow women to make decisions without barriers, and to enable them to actively participate in public affairs.

2.6.1 Empowerment theory

Empowerment has become an empty buzzword devoid of meaning (Expert Group Meeting EGM 2016). It clearly denotes the concept 'power'. Golla *et al* (2011) state that power has been viewed as the aptitude or knack to make choices or influence the conduct of others or the progression of events. Power can be defined as the resource that enables individuals to achieve their objectives. Eyben *et al* (2008) assert that empowerment is derived from the root word power and this means empowerment takes place when people as individuals or groups manage to acquire power and use it to achieve their objectives or to reach their vision. These definitions see empowerment as an outcome. Empowerment can also be regarded as a social process, a strategy for development and a personal transformation. As is demonstrated below, these different takes on what empowerment can mean are very similar and should be regarded as dimensions of the same idea.

As a social process, empowerment is the practise of providing opportunities, resources and support so that people can improve their livelihoods. Hence, empowerment can be viewed as a process that nurtures power in people so that they can take decisions and actions to improve their lives. Lefton (2013) views empowerment as a multi-faceted social process that enables people to gain control over their own lives. As a process, empowerment also engenders power in people for use in their own lives as well as their communities so that they can realise their dreams and aspirations within a given environment.

Mosedale (2014) says that the term empowerment is generally used in development, especially with respect to women. Berman (as quoted in Mosedale 2014) says that empowerment is a strategy for development whereby people define, plan, execute, and control their own development. To be effective, people need to gain control over

resources and means of production, access to information and knowledge, and control over their lives (Mosedale 2014).

Empowerment can also be regarded as a course of increasing individual, interpersonal, or political power, so that people can act to improve their situations (Golla *et al* 2011). Mosedale (2014) states that empowerment endeavours to help individuals to have the power to decide and act over their own lives. Women's empowerment, therefore, means building the capacity of women so that they can have social, economic, and political power so that they can effectively participate in development as equals with men.

Model A1 farmers were female beneficiaries of land reform and largely practise subsistence farming. They were different from Model A2 farmers who were primarily involved in commercial farming. For these Model A1 female farmers, empowerment meant providing them with the necessary resources such as land and farming inputs as well as developing their abilities and capacities to use their skills and knowledge to improve their livelihoods. In other words, true empowerment of these women farmers should ideally have involved teaching them the best farming practices that would create sustainable products and increase their livelihoods. Such an approach would look at both the quality and quantity of produce. This implies the provision of basic inputs such as land, water rights, basic skills (agriculture and marketing), key farming inputs such as seeds, fertilizers, implements, hired labour, and animals. Assuming that the climate is favourable, this should lead to higher agricultural production for the rural farmer. If done sustainably, it can support diversification or cash-crop production and linking to value chains for profit that enables incomes beyond basic survival. In theory, such empowerment through land ownership can be the springboard for marginalised women to attain improved livelihoods followed by enhanced food security.

Eyben *et al* (2008) say that, essentially, there are three types of empowerment, namely social, economic, and political empowerment. With respect to social empowerment, Eyben *et al* (2008) contend that it means finding strategies or means to achieve one's goals in life or finding ways to reach one's desired pinnacle in life. The goals one wants to achieve are not imposed but are freely selected by the individual. With respect to farming, it means that a woman should be able to decide independently what she

wants to achieve by using the acquired land. It does not mean that the sole agency lies with the individual woman, because merely giving a woman agricultural land would not translate to social empowerment if the structural causes for her subjugation remain unaddressed. For years, male farmers in Africa have dominated farm decision-making, even – or especially – in regions where women make up the majority of farm workers. Men also tend to have better access to productivity-enhancing resources such as fertiliser and extension services (Enete, Nweke & Tollens 2004).

Another form of empowerment identified by Eyben *et al* (2008) is political empowerment. A woman is politically empowered when she can actively participate in political activities and institutions such as being a councillor or Member of Parliament. In this dimension of empowerment, subjectivities such as gender and race intersect to structure participation in domestic, community, and national decision-making processes. Individuals who can freely participate are often able to air their views as equals in decision-making processes that affect their lives. With respect to the land reform, political empowerment will mean that land is allocated equally between men and women. Again, women will have power and voice to make decisions related to land and other related resources, such as how the household budget will be spent and who may participate in labour and share any profits.

The third form of empowerment delineated by Eyben *et al* (2008) is economic empowerment. They contend that economic empowerment means that women and men are actively involved in development processes and their efforts are recognised and equally rewarded. For this to happen, the poor must have assets such as land and be assisted through social protection programmes, credit, and extension services. The empowered people also have a say in their work and the work they do is decent. With respect to the land reform, it would, therefore, mean that women should get a fair share of the land and then be assisted through the provision of agricultural inputs. In addition, the work they do on the farms should be decent and fair. Gendered differences in agricultural livelihoods also include access to credit, markets (to sell produce not consumed by the household), training, and the ability to hire labour to assist in farm work (Fletschner 2009).

Golla *et al* (2011: 4) clarify the concept of WEE by saying that:

A woman is economically empowered when she has both the ability to succeed and advance economically and the power to make and act on economic decisions. To succeed and advance economically, women need the skills and resources to compete in markets, as well as fair and equal access to economic institutions. To have the power and agency to benefit from economic activities, women need to have the ability to make and act on decisions and control resources and profits.

This definition clearly shows that the major emphasis for economic empowerment are resources, power, and skills. It is important to note that while the focus of the study was on women's economic empowerment through the land reform, the section also examined the extent to which women land beneficiaries were socially and politically empowered. This approach is important, because the foregoing three types of empowerment are intricately related.

2.6.2 Sustainable livelihoods framework (SLF)

Moyo and Sukume (2004) point out that livelihood is a means of making a living. It encompasses people's competences, assets, income, and undertakings required to obtain the provisions of life. A livelihood is sustainable when it empowers individuals to manage and recuperate from shocks and stresses. McBride (2014) notes that key elements of sustainable livelihoods include five important types of capital assets which are human, natural, financial, social, and physical. From these elements, it is clear that only effective economic empowerment can bring about sustainable livelihoods. However, before reaching sustainable livelihoods, the poor or marginalized live a life of poverty with limited capital assets.

Based on the work of IFAD (2016), the livelihoods of the poor before empowerment and sustainable livelihoods consist of extremely reduced livelihoods conditions summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Extremely reduced livelihoods components before sustainable livelihoods

Human capital	Natural capital	Financial capital	Physical capital	Social capital
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - labour capacity - no education - limited skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - landless - access to common property resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - low wages - no access to credit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poor water supply - Poor housing - Poor communications 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Low social status - Discrimination against women - Strong links with family & friends

				- Traditions of reciprocal exchange
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Source: Adapted from IFAD (2016).

Empowerment through government policies and programs as well as development programs by development agencies such as non-governmental organisations can uplift the livelihoods of the poor. The means of living as shown in Table 2.1 can best be defined as an extremely reduced livelihood. With economic empowerment programmes and policies such as the land reform, the livelihoods of the poor such as marginalized women can change radically to sustainable livelihoods illustrated in Table 2.1. Facets of sustainable livelihoods are illustrated below in Table 2.2

Table 2.2: Sustainable livelihoods framework

Human capital	Physical capital	Financial capital	Physical capital	Social capital
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Health - Nutrition - Education - Knowledge and skills - Capacity to work - Capacity to adapt 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Land and produce - Water & aquatic resources - Trees and forest products - Wildlife 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Savings - Credit/debit facilities - Remittances - Pensions - Wages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Infrastructure, e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Transport - roads, vehicles, etc. - Secure shelter & buildings - Water supply & sanitation - Energy - Communications - Tools and equipment for production - Seed, fertiliser, pesticides 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Networks and connections - Patronage - Neighbourhoods - Kinship - Relations of trust and mutual support - Formal and informal groups - Common rules and sanctions - Collective representation - Participation in decision-making - Leadership

Source: Adapted from IFAD (2016)

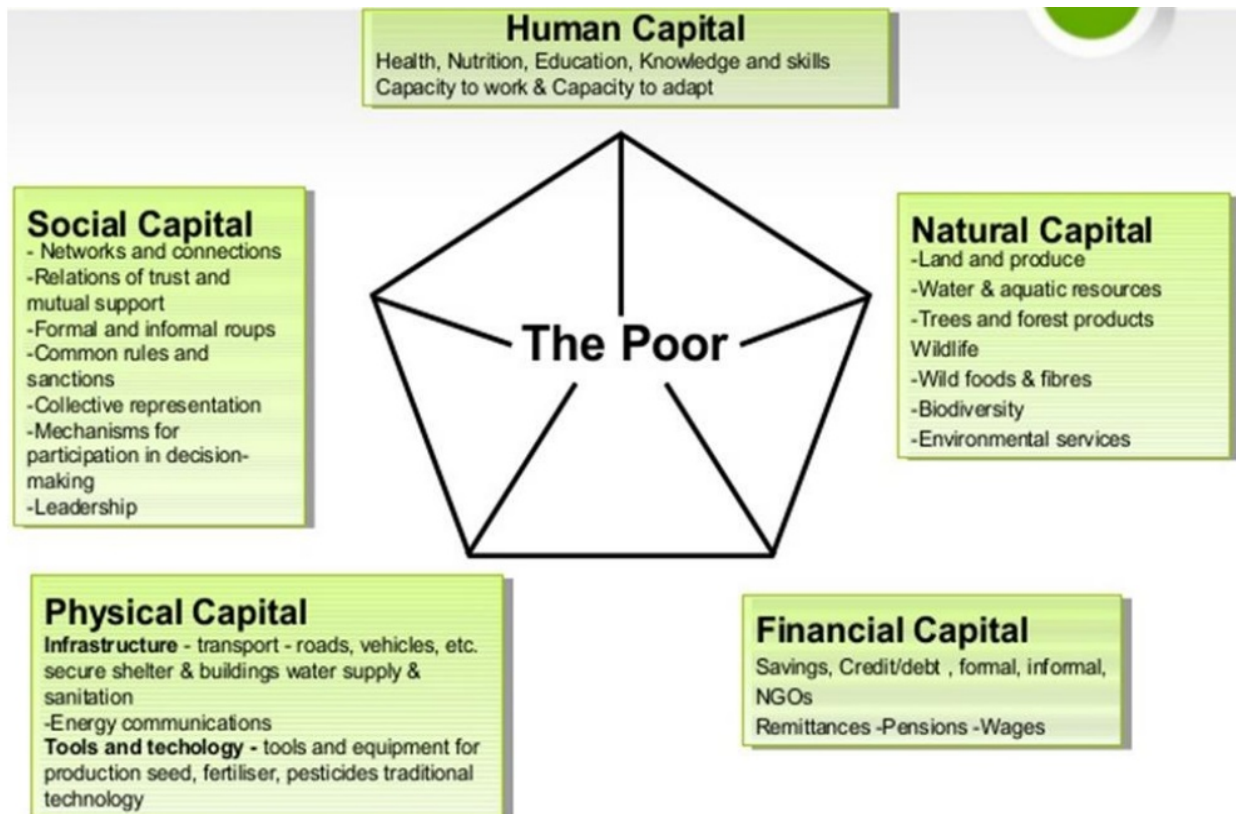


Figure 2.2: The sustainable livelihoods framework

Source: Singh *et al* (2015)

Before achieving sustainable livelihoods, the poor will be vulnerable to various shocks and vulnerabilities such as floods, droughts, cyclones, deaths in the family, violence or civil unrest, trends and changes with respect to changes related to population, environment, technology, markets and trade, and globalisation (IFAD 2016). To achieve sustainable livelihoods for the poor and marginalised calls for empowerment especially economic empowerment. This explains why sustainable livelihoods for poor women farm owners cannot be achieved before they are economically empowered. Hence, the symbiotic relationship between WEE and sustainable livelihoods is explained in Figure 2.2. Figure 2.2 illustrates the researcher's conceptualisation of the theory of change of sustainable livelihoods for Model A1 women farmers.

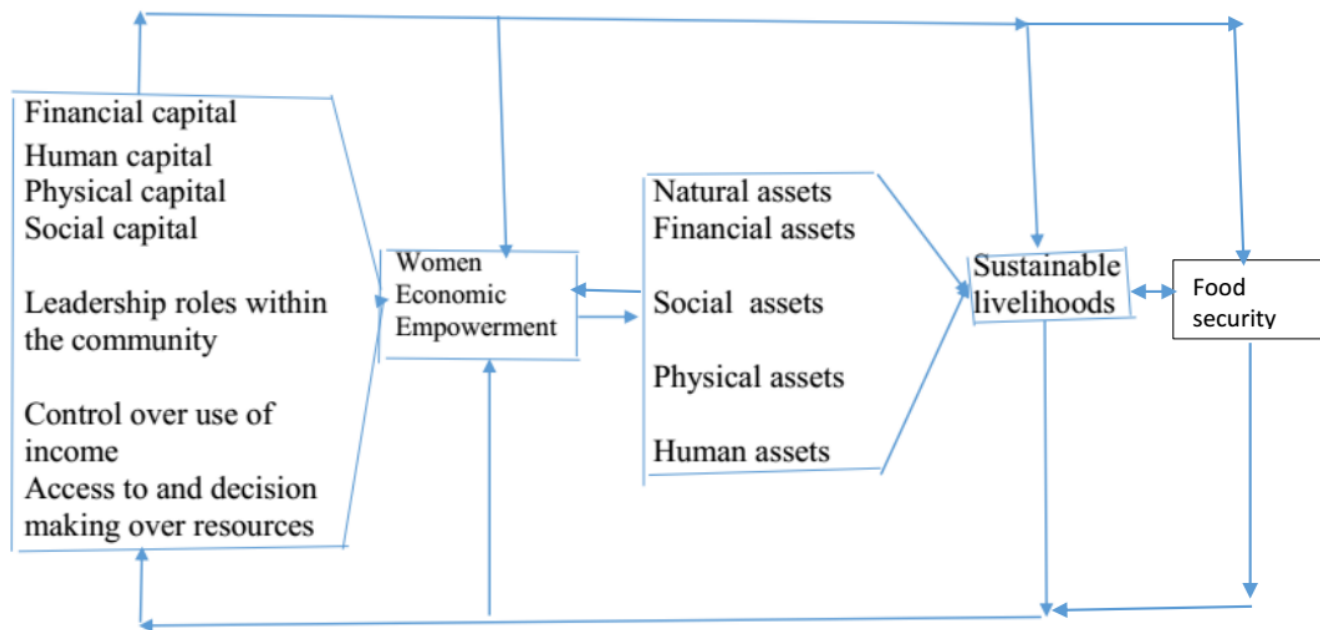


Figure 2.3: Researcher's conceptual framework based on the review of the literature

Livelihoods strategies that can be used by the poor include input-rich subsistence farming by the women farmers. The strategies also include several livelihood activities such as diversified small-scale farming and self-employment activities. However, to be effective, these strategies require back up in terms of responsive public policies and programs.

The resultant outcomes for sustainable livelihoods include improved access to livelihood assets that include all the five assets shown in Table 2.1 and Figure 2.1. In addition, the outcome of greater livelihoods security will encompass higher and more stable incomes and reduced risk to environmental shocks and vulnerabilities. Finally, livelihood security would also entail food security as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

2.6.3 Symbiotic relationship between empowerment and livelihoods

The foregoing clearly shows that there is a close link between empowerment and livelihoods. Empowerment is the trigger for sustainable livelihoods. As observed by Singh *et al* (2015) and IFAD (2016), empowering people involves increasing as well as diversifying people's means of survival which is their livelihood. As people's livelihoods continue to improve, their empowerment is also enhanced. It exemplifies a

chicken and egg relationship. Therefore, as noted by IFAD (2016), when rural women are empowered with the land as a physical asset then other assets would be developed through agricultural productivity on the land. However, as emphasized by Singh *et al* (2015), apart from the land, women would need other essential assets as inputs such as liquid capital, farming implements such as ploughs, oxen, labour, fertilizers, and seeds. A good start could then bring more cumulative advantages through the virtuous cycle (Worldview Mission 2015).

This clearly shows that women need to be empowered first before sustainable livelihoods can be realised. Hence, any meaningful study of WEE based on land and agriculture must take into consideration the symbiotic relationship between WEE and livelihoods as shown in Figure 2.2.

2.6.4 Empowerment, livelihoods, and food security

It is clear from the foregoing that once women are empowered with the land, their livelihoods would improve if all the necessary inputs are in place. Sustainable livelihoods would also entail food security given that marginalized women are generally the affected by food insecurity.

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO 2010) says that food security exists when all people in a given household have adequate and nutritious food for a healthy life. The FAO (2010) notes that households are food secure when they have adequate food throughout the year and all household members live active and healthy lives. Food insecurity is the opposite of food security. It is viewed as a state in which consistent access to food is limited owing to a lack of financial resources to buy the food or owing to limited food production. It can also be defined as struggling to avoid hunger or facing the threat of hunger.

From the foregoing, it could be clear that there is a very close relationship between women empowerment through land which should lead to sustainable livelihoods assuming that all the other inputs are available. Sustainable livelihoods would entail higher productivity on the farm for empowered women and that should lead to an increase in food security. Hence, the first stage to ensure food security is to break the

cycle of poverty by providing the land and other farming inputs. This will, in turn, improve women's livelihoods resulting in increased food security (see Figure 2.2).

2.6.5 Factors that influence WEE

Given that the focus of this study is WEE, it is important that factors that influence WEE are discussed in detail. Golla *et al* (2011) indicated that in order to accomplish WEE, the fundamental factors that lead to economic inequality must be addressed. These factors include individual and community resources, and norms and institutions. With respect to resources, Golla *et al* (2011) say that these are key elements that women can utilise to advance economically. The resources are found at personal and community levels and are not just in form of money but could be human capital, financial capital, social capital, and physical capital. With respect to norms and institutions, Golla *et al* (2011) observe that these norms and institutions are the rules, regulations, policies, and traditions that control and influence the activities and relationships within society. These norms define expected roles and behaviours of women in society such as the type of work they should or should not do while institutions include laws that govern economic and financial systems, marriage, and inheritance. These factors that influence WEE are summarized in Figure 2.3.



Figure 2.4: Factors that contribute to WEE

Source: Golla *et al* (2011: 4)

2.6.6 Methods to empower women

There are numerous methods that might be adopted to empower women. However, despite the various interventions that have been tabled, minimal efforts had been done in actual practise to empower these women. The main reason for this failure had been placed largely on gender disparities that discriminated against women in terms of access to resources.

2.6.6.1 Giving land to women

Giving women resources is one way to empower them. In this regard, granting land rights is one way to empower women. Moyo (2004) points out that land rights offer a key way to economically empower women, giving them the confidence, they need to tackle gender inequalities. Moyo (2004) notes that in developing countries, women are restricted from owning land. Therefore, to empower women using land, they should have power over land as well as the power to make decisions in the family (Moyo 2010). The benefits of land in empowering women is also echoed by Eyben *et al* (2008: 34) that re-distribution of assets such as land reform programmes is one effective strategy for WEE.

Land reform as a strategy for WEE is stressed by Kabeer (2015). In this regard, Kabeer (2015) says that unequal access to land and property are major indicators of gender inequality across the world. Kabeer (2015) argues that this is very common in rural areas in sub-Saharan Africa where traditional and customary laws and practices are the major contributors to gender inequality. This inequality discourages women from investing in land which they do not fully own. This negatively affects productivity thus exacerbating disparities. Kabeer (2015) assert that where women have full control of land, productivity tends to be higher resulting in higher incomes for them. If these observations are correct, then land redistribution in favour of women should considerably empower women economically. However, while giving land to women is an important consideration for women's empowerment, it is just a beginning. More must be done to ensure total economic empowerment. Other facets of economic empowerment should be availed or nurtured. These include the provision of financial, human, physical, and social capital, as well as leadership roles within the community,

and control over income, access to and decision making over resources. Hence, this study seeks to explore beyond limited empowerment of just availing land.

2.6.6.2 Promoting women to senior positions

Moyo (2004) argues that another strategy to ensure women empowerment is to assign them to senior positions that are normally occupied by men. This explains why some governments have come up with women quotas with respect to the allocation of senior positions in government. For example, the Zimbabwe government is advocating for a 50% allocation of senior positions to women.

2.6.6.3 Involving women in development and management activities

Another strategy to empower women is to involve them in development and management activities. Female participation in development and management activities has been argued to be a beneficial form of gender empowerment. Moyo (2004) urges the involvement of women in political processes such as voting and running for office, for example, as councillors and MPs. Another strategy is to avail financial resources to women in business. In this regard, Mosedale (2014) observes that microcredit is one strategy that empowers women. This financial support could be in the form of loans with low-interest rates. This study examined the extent to which this form of empowerment is practised with respect to women who benefited from the land reform.

2.7 ECONOMIC BENEFITS OF WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT

When women are empowered through land reform it creates gainful employment for them. When this takes place, the potential for economic growth is very high (Goebel 2005). Goebel (2005) argues that empowering women in developing countries is essential to reduce global poverty since women in developing countries represent the world's poor population. Hence, empowering women through land reform can significantly lead to economic development as a whole.

2.8 GAP IN THE LITERATURE AND SUMMARY

Despite the positive results of the land reform in Zimbabwe highlighted earlier, it has been condemned as largely responsible for the country's economic collapse resulting in what others refer to as changing Zimbabwe from the breadbasket to a basket case (Goebel 2005). Given these contradictory results, the study sought to find out the extent to which the land reform indeed economically empowered women. Moyo (2004), Moyo (2011), and Scoones *et al* (2011) only looked at land ownership and a few benefits such as income generated from the land. However, Eyben *et al* (2008) argue that WEE is not simply about land ownership and income generated, it goes deeper than that. As noted by Eyben *et al* (2008) and Golla *et al* (2011), a woman is economically empowered when she has both the ability to succeed and advance economically and the power to make and act on economic decisions. WEE requires that women have the skills and resources to compete in markets and will be treated fairly and equally by financial institutions. To have the power and agency to benefit from economic activities, women should make and act on decisions and control resources and profits. Fostering WEE involves creating enabling environments free from the barriers prohibiting women's participation and supportive frameworks for their engagement in the economic sphere.

Another major indicator of WEE, especially with respect to the agriculture-based economy for the rural poor, is improved livelihoods. There is a dearth of research that links the WEE with sustainable livelihoods. The study, therefore, examined to what extent the FTLRP in Zimbabwe empowered women economically with respect to all aspects of WEE delineated in this chapter.

2.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher provided a review of related literature on women's economic empowerment through the FTLRP in Zimbabwe. The researcher also provided a theoretical framework that guided this study as well as the gaps that have been noted in the reviewed literature. In the next chapter, the researcher described the research methodology for the study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Research methodology refers to the processes and procedures adopted by researchers during the research process and the philosophical assumptions that guide these processes and procedure (Rajasekar, Philominathan & Chinnathambi 2006; Creswell 2013). In this chapter, the researcher describes the chosen research design, the selected study site, the population, sample and sampling procedure, data collection techniques, research instruments, and ethical considerations of the study. Data analysis strategies are also described.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Bowen (2008), Creswell (2012), and Denzin and Lincoln (2008) conceptualise a research design as a plan for the study. Green and Thorogood (2015) and Holloway (2005) suggest that the main purpose of a research design is to envision what suitable research decisions should be made to capitalise on the trustworthiness of the eventual outcome. This research adopted a qualitative, descriptive design based on fieldwork for this study. The primary data collection strategies included focus group discussions and key informant interviews meant to explore women's economic empowerment through the FTLRP in Makoni district. This allowed the participants to express their feelings, attitudes, perceptions, and knowledge regarding women's economic empowerment as a result of the FTLRP. This enabled a detailed description of how women in Makoni district were economically empowered by the FTLRP in their own words and experiences.

The units of observation were specific individuals, in this case, 30 female beneficiaries of the land reform programme and five land officers from Makoni district. The latter included a representative from the District Administrator office, a representative from the Chief Executive office, the District Extension officer, and two Agricultural Extension officers. The chosen research site was Makoni district. The district was chosen because it was easily accessible to the researcher and for the focus group

discussants. In addition, the site offered the opportunity to collect rich information on how women's economic empowerment due to the FTLRP occurred in Zimbabwe after 2000.

The qualitative field research mode of observation allowed the researcher to collect data directly from the female beneficiaries and to make observations of the extent to which women in Makoni district are benefiting economically from the FTLRP. This enabled the collection of detailed evidence of the nexus of women's empowerment, the FTLRP and sustainable livelihoods.

Since the research design is qualitative, variables and hypotheses were not set prior to the data gathering. Instead, the researcher used structuring themes derived from the review of literature and from the theoretical framework. These included: tactics to improve household disposable income, nutrition and food security, poverty reduction, women's participation in decision-making, and the general well-being of women and their households.

3.3 CASE STUDY RESEARCH

Rule and John (2011) describe a case study as an approach to research that enables the exploration of a study area within its setting using a diversity of data instruments. This means that the phenomenon is not discussed only through one lens, but a multiplicity of lenses which permits the gathering of rich data on the phenomenon (Kant 2008). Thus, a case study is a concentrated, single inquiry, studied in its own totality. Gilbert (2008) argues that a case study has the advantage of rendering a detailed study of an item singled-out for research on a small scale and of relatively short duration. The researcher chose Makoni district out of the seven districts in Manicaland province. Selecting a single district as a case study enabled the researcher to have an in-depth study on how women have been economically empowered through the land reform programme.

Through a case study approach that largely focuses on small samples, the participants in the study were offered an opportunity to divulge their own experiences with, attitudes towards, and perceptions on women's economic empowerment. The

researcher also observed some of the income generating activities that women in the selected wards engaged in, in order to improve their livelihoods. The case study approach, which entailed focusing only on Makoni district's three selected wards, also enabled the researcher to explore the support structures and resources for women after the FTLRP, a situation which could have been rendered difficult if a survey approach was adopted, which could require that even more districts of Manicaland be studied. The amount of data collected would be too voluminous to ascertain the quality, rigour, and adequate analysis of the data. Through visits to the study sites, the researcher was able to give robust and thick description on how women adopted improved farming methods, techniques, and strategies to enhance their household's disposable income. This was made possible through the adoption of a qualitative case study approach.

Makoni district is one of the seven executive districts of Manicaland Province. It is delimited by Mutasa in the East, Nyanga to the North-East, Mashonaland East in the North and West, and Mutare district in the South. The district is governed by the District Administrator (DA) who represents the Ministry of Local Government and National Housing. The DA has been responsible for the distribution of land to Zimbabweans during the FTLRP.

This study focused on the three wards of Makoni, namely wards 12, 16, and 19. These wards were purposively chosen because they were easily accessible to the researcher. The selected areas had been initially occupied by the white farmers, who had been driven off their land during the land reform programme. In fact, the selected area is largely populated by beneficiaries of the land reform programme as the wards lie in region 1 and 2, which have conducive environment for farming activities. During the land reform programme, some blacks from all over Zimbabwe were allocated land for farming in the wards that had been selected for this study. The map of Makoni district and the selected wards for the study have been highlighted below.

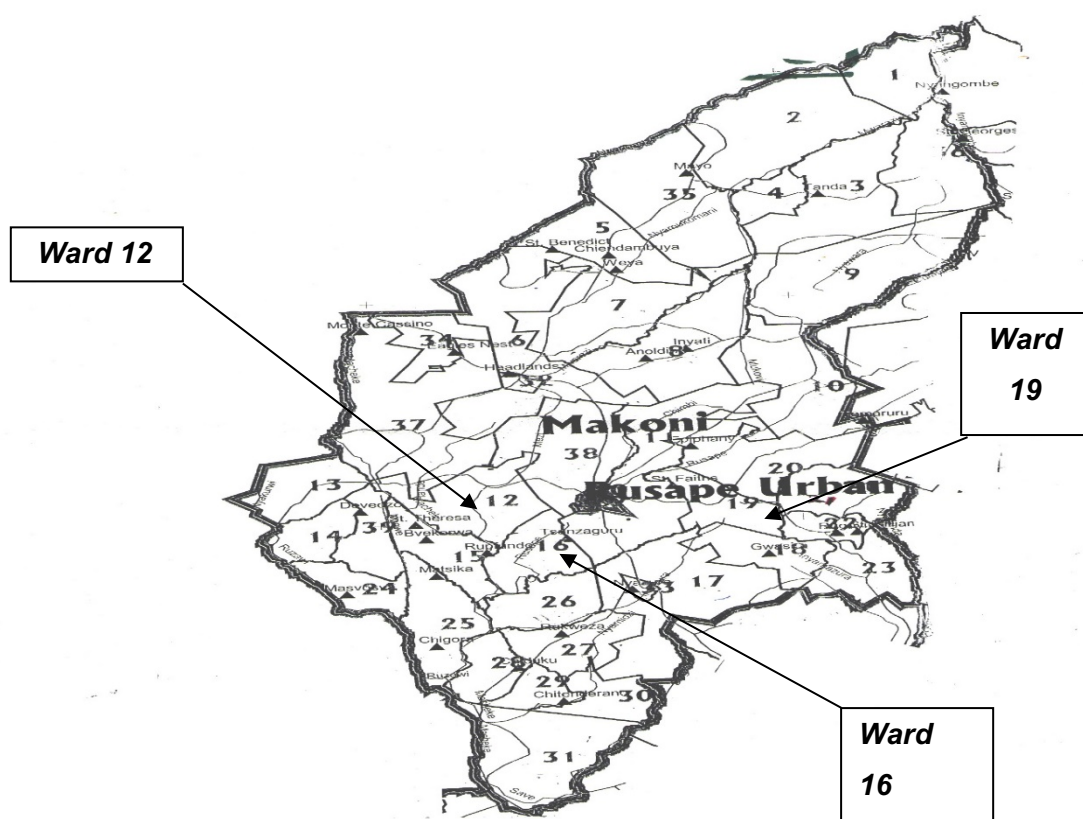


Figure 3.1: Map of Makoni District

Source: Adapted from ZEC (2007)

Table 3.1: Makoni district population aggregated by sex and age

Age Group	Male	Female	Total
0-4	17 232	17 290	34 532
5-9	18 389	18 232	36 621
10-14	19 604	189 57	38 561
15-19	17 539	14 807	32 346
20-24	9 317	10 514	19 831
25-29	6 767	8 669	15 436
30-34	5 258	6 658	11 916
35-39	3 847	5 489	9 336
40-44	3 227	5 179	8 406
45-49	2 812	4 347	7 159
50+	14 594	19 255	33 849
Total	118 586	129 397	247 993

Source: Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (ZIMSTAT 2017). Inter-Censal demographic survey.

Makoni is largely characterised by two distinct land use patterns and or activities; farming and mining. Large scale, small-to-medium scale (A1 – with up to 4000 farms, and A2 – with approximately 400 farms) as communal or subsistence farming takes an estimated 80% of the land use activities (Moyo 2004).

3.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

Bowen (2008) defines a target population as all those entities upon which a study can make a scientific supposition with respect to a certain attribute or social phenomenon. Specifically, for this study, the research population refers to all 32 wards of Makoni district. As the researcher could not study the entire district, the researcher adopted a purposive sampling strategy of first selecting three wards and then the participants. Purposive sampling is an accepted strategy for qualitative field research as the intention is not to generalise from the sample statistics to the population, but instead to uncover the lived experiences of the women farmers. The wards closest to the Harare-Mutare highway were selected, as this enabled the researcher to find venues for the focus group discussions that are easily accessible for all the respondents. The selected wards could be found on the map of Makoni district (Figure 3.1).

From the three wards, 30 Model A1 female farm owners who are listed as beneficiaries of the FTLRP by the DA office in Makoni district were selected. The list of farm owners was drawn up from the information provided by the local Department of Agriculture in Makoni district and from the DA office. The combined list contained 153 names. From this list, the researcher purposively chose surnames of beneficiaries starting with “M” until 30 participants were chosen. The researcher contacted these women by telephone and notified them of the intended study. Some women who were selected declined to participate in the study and the researcher repeated the process until 30 willing participants were found. The women were then sorted into groups of five or six based on their proximity, so that they would not walk long distances for the focus group discussions.

The researcher also purposively selected five land officers from the different government departments and ministries that are directly involved in the distribution of land. These included the District Administrator’s office, the Rusape rural district council, the department of lands and agriculture, and the ministry of local government.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION METHODS AND PROCEDURE

The researcher used two primary data collection methods, namely key informant interviews and focus group discussions. Babbie (2010) opines that multiple data sources enable the researcher to triangulate the gathered data, thus providing a detailed, rich, and an in-depth understanding of the phenomena under study. The researcher sought permission before conducting the research from the District Administrator (DA) of Makoni district, as the DA is the presiding authority of Makoni district. After permission was granted, the researcher designed a data collection plan. Interviews were held with key informants drawn from land officers from the Department of Agriculture, while Model A1 female farmers participated in FGDs.

3.5.1 Key informant interviews

Key informant interviews tended to be unstructured, personal interviews with a single respondent, conducted by an interviewer (Yin 2009). Yin (2009) asserts that the strength of in-depth interviews relates to the way in which the method enables probing and understanding of motivations, beliefs, attitudes, and feelings on a particular topic from the interviewee's perspective. Bowen (2008) notes that the unstructured in-depth interview can be used to determine individuals' perceptions, opinions, facts and forecasts, and their reactions to initial findings and potential solutions to their own problems. Kumar (2011) opine that key informant interviews should be in-depth interviews with people who know what is going on in the community.

The purpose of key informant interviews was to collect information from a wide range of people (representing different government departments and ministries) who could provide rich data and their different perceptions on the area. The researcher interviewed five land officers who have been involved in and interacting with women farm owners from Makoni district. The representatives of the land officers were purposively chosen from government departments and ministries that are directly responsible for allocating and overseeing the distribution of land among Zimbabwean black people. These key informants were provided with an opportunity to expand and substantiate their accounts, experiences, and feelings on women's economic empowerment in Makoni district.

An interview schedule guided the key informant interviews. It was constructed by the researcher based on the review of the literature, the theoretical framework, and the research objectives. It was tested with Family AIDS Caring Trust (FACT) employees, which is a local Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) with its headquarters in Mutare. This NGO focuses on health-related programming, livelihood activities, and sustainable livelihood activities. The major reason for testing the research instruments was to ascertain that the questions were clear, unambiguous, and able to solicit rich data. The interview schedules were translated into Shona, as the respondents were more comfortable to conduct the study using their mother language. A copy of the final instruments appears in Appendix 2 and 3.

Key informants were identified from the land officers who despite being attached to different departments of the Zimbabwean government and ministries, had played complementary roles in the land reform. The inclusion criteria were female beneficiaries of the land reform programme from the A1 model as well as land officers who were responsible for the allocation of land to these beneficiaries. The exclusion criteria were men beneficiaries who benefited from the A1 land reform exercise. These men had benefited more and differently than women did, possibly as a result of gender and patriarchal influences in society, which tend to favour men.

Salkind (2010) notes that inclusion benchmarks and exclusion principles, make up the assortment or fitness criteria employed to rule the participants in or out of a research study. The researcher made appointments to interview the five land officers by the end of September 2018. Interviews were conducted in Rusape town (Makoni district), where offices of these land officers are situated, for a period of 5 days, that is from 3 to 7 September 2018. Each interview was preceded by negotiation of informed consent and each participant signed the form. A copy of the informed consent form appears in Appendix 5. Interviews were conducted by the researcher in Shona language and tape-recorded. Each interview lasted 40 to 50 minutes.

3.5.2 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

FGDs were conducted with thirty Model A1 women farm owners. Each focus group consisted of five to six women and five focus groups were conducted at the ward centres of the wards selected for this study. The discussion was guided by an open-ended, unstructured interview guide. The interview guide was developed by the researcher based on the review of the literature, the theoretical framework, and the research objectives. The interview was then tested on FACT employees and translated into Shona (the first language of the participants), so that they could freely participate during the discussions.

FGDs were particularly suited to this study as they brought together women farmers who shared common interests. The researcher allowed each group to decide on the language they felt comfortable to use and that would promote active participation. During the execution of the focus groups, it emerged that the preferred language of participants was Shona.

Before commencing the discussions, the researcher set ground rules about accommodating individual contributions, sharing of experiences, challenges, and best practices. The researcher encouraged participants to be frank from the outset of each session. Rapport was established by reassuring the participants that there are no right or wrong answers and that the questions posed were meant to guide a discussion. The researcher indicated that he had no allegiance with the government, a NGO, or a research sponsor. Participants were also reassured of their right to withdraw from the study at any point, without any penalties or having to explain their reasons for doing so. In addition, each member was informed about the goals and the format of the study and was asked to sign an informed consent form (see Appendix 5).

FGDs lasted about two hours and were arranged to take place in ward centres for wards 12, 16, and 19. Ward centres are community places where people from these wards would meet for their various community meetings. The FGDs were conducted between 3 and 8 September 2018.

The researcher acted as the FGD moderator by introducing the study to the participants. The researcher tape-recorded the focus discussions, while a note taker was appointed by the researcher to assist in capturing of what had been discussed. Before tuning on the recording device, the researcher sought permission from the interviewees for the recording. This note taker was not a participant, because if any of the participants were accorded this duty, it would dissuade them from active participation.

The researcher created a relaxed setting and explained the ground rules of participation. These ground rules were suggested by the participants themselves and were not dictated by the researcher. Participants were asked to use pseudonyms during the discussions. Since land remains a political issue in Zimbabwe, the possibility of participants being victimised by the ruling party if they were to divulge sensitive information or views contrary to the official ideology was a concern.

3.5.3 Secondary sources – documents

The researcher used secondary data sources to complement the primary data sources. These included the Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (Act No 20 of 2013) and Gender Protocol on Gender and Development and the National Gender Policy of Zimbabwe (2017). Other documentary evidence was the list of women farmers and statistics from various government ministries and development partners. These documents have been used to buttress interventions that have been undertaken by the Zimbabwean government as well as other regional organisations like SADC to address policies, laws, and regulations that regard women as inferior to men in terms of access to the resources and other life opportunities. More so laws and policies have been enacted, to address gender disparities between women and men.

3.6 ISSUES OF TRUSTWORTHINESS AND CREDIBILITY

Bowen (2008) asserts that reliability in qualitative research upholds scholarly thoroughness, transparency, and proficient ethics. Trustworthiness is realised by giving attention to the study's transferability, credibility, dependability, and conformability (Denzin & Lincoln 2008). Trustworthiness was enhanced in this study

by safeguarding the credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of the data collection and analysis.

3.6.1 Credibility

Kant (2008) argues that credibility, or internal reliability, should be viewed in terms of how successful the researcher has been able to establish findings that are believable from the perspective of the participants in the research. Hence, the researcher located the data in Makoni district where evidence was directly obtained from the participants. The FGDs and the key informant interviews allowed them to verify some conclusions and to sanction that their data have been correctly construed. Credibility is also safeguarded when the researcher uses methods recognised as central to the chosen research tradition (Yin 2009). In this regard, the researcher used qualitative fieldwork techniques that included key informant interviews and focus group discussions. Finally, the data collection instruments were subjected to peer scrutiny – first through submission to the Higher Degrees Committee of the Department of Development Studies in 2017 and requesting ethical clearance from that committee and thereafter through the pilot testing of the instruments as explained earlier on in this chapter. As a safeguard to credibility, the researcher made field observation notes in a research journal. These notes gave context to the data collection and enabled a reflexive account of how women have been economically empowered through the land reform programme.

3.6.2 Transferability

This denotes the external reliability regarding the study (Lincoln & Guba 1985), since qualitative studies cannot be strictly replicated due to the constructed nature pertaining the evidence obtained. The researcher safeguarded transferability by obtaining as much contextual information as possible. Transferability can be viewed as the degree to which study results can be transferred to other contexts (Creswell 2012). The interview data triangulated with documentary evidence and the researcher's journal notes enabled thick descriptions of the themes. In addition, the researcher gave a full account regarding the methodological decisions taken in this chapter. A full review on the strengths and the weaknesses of these decisions were given in Chapter 5. Finally,

the researcher reflected on his own positionality as a qualitative researcher in this chapter.

3.6.3 Dependability

Babbie (2010) asserts that dependability is when similar results will be obtained if the researcher observes the same phenomena more than once. However, Baxter and Jack (2008) note that as qualitative research advocates for flexibility and freedom, it may be challenging to replicate the study results obtained from a study in a different context.

The researcher ensured that data could be stable over time and under diverse conditions (dependability). As a result, the study participants were carefully selected from those who had rich information on the effects of the land reform programme on women's economic empowerment. These participants included women land beneficiaries so that primary data were obtained from the actual land reform programme recipients. Interviews with land officers were also vital in exploring the issues regarding women's empowerment. These land officers were directly involved in the land allocation and distribution to the black Zimbabweans. As a result, the researcher assumed that the research findings can be transferred to other contexts (Zimbabwe districts) with similar experiences.

3.6.4 Confirmability

In order to achieve confirmability, the researcher ensured that the data gathered accurately represented the respondents' views. When the researcher noted some non-verbal communications such as quietness, frowning, or smiling, he asked the participants for clarification. The researcher checked the credibility of the analysis by confirming the representativeness of the data as a whole to the set objectives. The researcher also returned time and again to the data, to check whether the analysis was reflective of the data gathered.

Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (2008) point out that data analysis is the process of inspecting, cleaning, transforming, and modelling data with the goal of discovering

useful information, suggesting a conclusion and supporting decision making for the study. The credibility of content analysis hinged on the availability of rich, correct, and saturated data on Zimbabwe women's economic empowerment through the land reform programme. As a result, data gathering and reporting on the results were undertaken simultaneously, in order to enhance the trustworthiness of the research (Elo, Kaariainen, Polkki, Utriainen & Kyngas 2014).

The data from the interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed as text. A sample of the transcription was presented to the supervisor for checking. The researcher checked the accuracy of the transcriptions by listening to the recordings whilst reading the text. The researcher read the text several times and made notes. He then set up a list of themes emerging from the data. This list was juxtaposed with the literature review, the stated objectives, and the researcher's journal notes. The list of themes was presented to the supervisor for checking. Each theme was assigned a numerical code. The researcher coded the text basing on the research themes.

In conducting the analysis process, the researcher utilised the model of qualitative data analysis suggested by Steinberg (2004). The model is based on three steps which are intra-transcript analysis; that is, trying to make meaning out of each text by referring to the verbatim comments and notes captured and transcribed during data collection (Creswell 2012). This involved reading the transcripts in their entirety several times and trying to get a sense of the interviews before breaking them into parts. The second step is inter-transcript analysis; that is, comparing and contrasting responses from participants, in order to verify the data that was obtained (Creswell 2012). The main reason for the researcher deciding to contrast responses from participants was to ascertain if the data obtained from different participants was consistent. The final phase is developing a meaningful story, which will be the final outcome of this study, drawing meaning out of gathered information (Steinberg 2004). The researcher interpreted and discussed what he gathered from participants in order to find out whether the stated objectives had been answered.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations are important in all research, but in the value-committed paradigm of qualitative research, it is important for the researcher to establish a relationship of trust with the research participants. Right from the onset, the researcher declared the intentions of the study through access letters to gatekeepers from the university, an ethical clearance certificate, informed consent forms, and participant information sheets.

The researcher regarded the code of the Medical Research Council of Zimbabwe (MRCZ) and that of the University of South Africa as also binding on his behaviour. Four basic ethical research principles adhered to are discussed in below.

3.7.1 Respect for persons

The researcher sought consent from participants before commencing the fieldwork. Participation was purely based on informed and voluntary participation and participants had the right to make choices and decisions to continue or withdraw from the research. During the interviews, participants were given adequate time to respond and to consider their participation. The research also asked for permission from gatekeepers, for instance, Makoni district heads for the various government departments, the District Administrator and the Chief Executive officer and ward councillors from the wards the women beneficiaries reside. A pre-arrangement on the interview dates, times and venues were also discussed and agreed upon with the participants.

3.7.2 Beneficence

The researcher sought not to cause any harm to the participants by minimising risks through purposively selecting the participants who were willing to participate in the study, and conducting a pilot study of the research questions in order to ascertain if the questions had no possibility of harming the feelings of the participants. More so those participants who were incapable of giving consent due to varied reasons, or

unable to participate in focus group discussions and interviews, were asked to excuse themselves.

Ord, Eisenhauer, and Wynaden (2000) assert that if a researcher is upholding the norm of beneficence, superintending the potential effect of disclosing respondents' identities is an ethical burden. On that note, using pseudonyms was recommended. The participants in this study chose the names they liked to be associated with during the research and the focus groups were just labelled as group A, B, C, up to E.

The researcher minimised possible risks by submitting his proposal to the Higher Degrees Committee and an ethical certificate was granted. The research questions did not include sensitive information. Every contribution was viewed as beneficial to the study.

The data from FGDs can be curtailed by either domineering (those speaking too much) and/or passive participants (those who remain quiet). With the consent of the participants, the FGDs were arranged in a circle. This made it easier to ensure that each participant was given a chance to speak.

3.7.3 Justice

The researcher clearly communicated the aim, risks, and benefits related to participation in the study to the concerned research participants. Information on personal identity was not reported. Pseudonyms were assigned to key informants and FGD participants. The principle of justice was also enhanced when the researcher conducted the discussions and interviews in Shona. The consent forms were translated into Shona.

3.7.4 Confidentiality and anonymity

Confidentiality was guaranteed to all participants. The real names of participants and the institutions to which they are attached are not mentioned in the dissertation. The purposeful selection of key participants ensured that their identities were only known to the researcher.

Participants of FGDs cannot remain anonymous, because the data collection takes place in a group setting. The researcher ensured that the FGDs were carried out in a permissive, non-threatening environment. As a moderator, he is skilled in the facilitation of discussions so that everyone was included. The discussants were asked to keep what was shared in the group confidential. This was important in this study because the women shared the identities of being subsistence farmers who benefitted from the Model A1 land reform in the same district. Cornwall (1998: 55), for example, commenting on research in Nigeria, states that there may be aspects of women's lives and livelihoods which are especially important to conceal from fellow traders, worshippers, or family members. This could be so because women are generally denigrated in various developmental issues and their voices are rarely heard by society (Cornwall 2003). As a result, this has affected women's participation in community and developmental activities which has a positive bearing on their livelihood activities.

3.8 REFLECTIVE REVIEW OF THE RESEARCHER'S POSITIONALITY VIS-À-VIS THE RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

This study used a qualitative research paradigm and used qualitative research methodologies, which are participatory and all-encompassing of other people's voice including the voices of the participants. Greenaway (2010) argues that a cordial researcher-participant relationship enhances a kind of quality assertion mechanism within the research. The researcher had to engage the participants in dialogue which sought to explore women's economic empowerment through the land reform programme in Makoni district. At the same time, the researcher remained sensitive to cultural and gender variance among participants. He had to be mindful of the rights, principles, and cultural perspectives of the respondents, as well as their position within community power relations.

On the other hand, the researcher's former Honours degree study introduced him to a certain research pattern, which focuses on contemporary developmental issues. His prior experiences in community work inculcated a desire to explore how women have been marginalised in all walks of life due to gendered and patriarchal nature of

Zimbabwean society. As a man who grew up in royal family and has witnessed how women have been side-lined out of actively participating in community issues, due to patriarchy and gender norms, the researcher presumed that the female voice has to relentlessly affirm itself in a male dominated world. Women in Makoni district must actively participate in developmental issues that are meant to improve their economic empowerment.

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher discussed the research design and methods that were used for data collection. The next chapter focused on data presentation, analysis, and interpretation.

CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher focuses on data presentation, analysis, and discussions to present a picture of women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods due to the land reform programme in Makoni district. The presentation of sub-themes here is guided by the research objectives as suggested in Chapter 1 and the themes that emerged from the data analysis. The chapter thus commences with an overview of the biographical characteristics of the thirty research respondents. This is followed by a discussion of the participants' views and experiences of the FTLRP, women's income-generating activities, support structures that enable women's economic empowerment, and the role played by partners, such as NGOs in the empowerment of female farmers. The chapter ends with the participants' suggestions for strategies that would assist them and other smallholder female farmers and a summary of the main themes emerging from the data analysis.

4.2 BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS OF THE RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

As explained in the discussion of the research design, the researcher interviewed thirty female smallholder farmers who were beneficiaries of the land reform's Phase 2. These women participated in FGDs. For the purpose of presenting the data, the FGDs are labelled from 1 to 5 to distinguish the verbatim quotations from these interviews. The ages of women who participated in the FDGs ranged from 23 to 64 years. The oldest focus group discussant was 64 years of age. The Worldview Mission (2015), states that the age range of 25 to 64 years constitutes the main active working female population in Africa. More so, these women were single parents, who had either been divorced, widowed, or had children but without having been married. The women had gone up to Ordinary level but did not have the required five Ordinary level subjects to be regarded as having passed the minimum expected qualification in Zimbabwe.

In addition to the FGDs, the researcher conducted face-to-face individual interviews with five land officers as key informants. To reference verbatim quotations from their

interview transcript, the researcher assigned pseudonyms ranging from LOA to LOE. These land officers were suitable for this study because they were employed within various departments or line ministries of the Zimbabwean government, had the expected professional qualification needed by the government sections, and were involved in the land redistribution exercise. Three out of five of the land officers were female, while the remaining two were males.

4.3 THE ROLE OF PHASE 2 OF THE LAND REFORM IN ZIMBABWE, IN IMPROVING WOMEN'S LIVELIHOODS

In the previous chapters, the researcher outlined ways in which land reform in general and the land reform in Zimbabwe, in particular, can play a role in women's livelihoods. One of the key themes explored in the FGDs and key informant interviews was therefore the participants' opinions and actual experiences of the land reform programme in relation to economically empowering women in the specifically selected wards in the Makoni district. The sub-themes that reside under this discussion are general views of the land reform, its link to WEE, its link to combating gender-based violence, its link to household livelihoods, and problems related to the land reform. These sub-themes are discussed in greater detail below.

4.3.1 General views of the land reform

Four out of the five land officers reiterated the goals of the land reform, its vetting process, supportive programmes to implement it, and how it tried to rectify the problems of poor inclusivity for ordinary women in the previous land reform attempts.

LOC revealed that:

“Women from different wards received land during the land reform programme in order to improve their livelihoods [...] more so, to empower these women to venture into economically strengthening activities.”

LOA suggested:

“Women beneficiaries of the land reform programme had to undergo a thorough vetting [...] then there was also capacity building after they were granted land to try to ensure that they develop the skill and ability to fully utilise their land for economic empowerment.”

This was also supported by LOD, who said:

“Leadership skills and knowledge were also imparted to women who were given land during the land reform programme. The main motive is to empower women and improve their livelihood activities.”

LOB stated that:

“The land reform programme created opportunities for rural women to also participate in activities that improved their livelihood activities. Before the land reform exercise, few women in Zimbabwe owned pieces of land. Only a few Madziashe [meaning females from the royal family] owned land.”

The FDGs uncovered opinions that the Phase 2 of the land reform was experienced as a women-specific, pro-poor development intervention. As can be seen from the quotations below, the beneficiary groups interviewed in the FDGs juxtaposed their descriptions of the land reform with “traditional male” roles, with allowing in a few women, yet successfully doing so in response to the injustices perpetrated against Zimbabweans by colonisers.

For example, a participant from FGD1 said:

“Some women from this ward and across other wards and districts were given land during the land reform exercise. Despite more men being awarded land than women, the few women who have been able to work on their land were successful in growing tobacco, maize and groundnuts which they sell to the Grain Marketing Board mainly, but also to other buyers.”

From FGD4, a discussant revealed:

“The land reform programme deviated from the traditional norms and values which stipulate that women cannot be expected to own their own pieces of land. Traditionally, men would inherit pieces of land from their fathers. These men would then build houses on the land after getting married. It was usually unheard of for women to inherit land from their fathers. The idea was that usually the woman would get married. Then she would join another family and so get access to her husband’s possessions, indirectly. But she was not supposed to take with her any inheritance in the form of land or livestock to her in-laws’ family.”

An interesting theme emerged from FGD5, in which a discussant described the FTLRP as social justice to redress past injustices:

“When the Zimbabwe land reform programme was instituted, it was meant to benefit every black Zimbabwean, regardless of gender, age or ethnicity. The major objective was to address the colonial imbalances that have been caused by the colonisers, where blacks were marginalised and removed from the productive land.”

In general, it can be concluded that the research participants held positive views of the land reform, regarding it as a platform for WEE by allowing women to own a piece of land. This was seen as a progressive departure from the traditional customs and norms that excluded women. Moyo (2004) state that the programme addressed to some extent the country’s contentious legacy of historical injustice and social and racial inequities and broadened the base of economic participation by Zimbabwean blacks, irrespective of gender. However, Chigumira (2010) asserts that rural women are denigrated and marginalised in terms of land ownership and other general socio-economic activities, this while women take on the lion’s share in ensuring the family’s subsistence and food security. As a result, these women had limited livelihood options.

The participants in the FGDs and the key informants articulated that the major aim of the land reform was to promote poverty reduction through food security, protection, improved access to and control over land, promoting mechanisms against the effects of climate change and engaging women in various livelihood activities. Specific

activities mentioned in the interviews were cash crop production, and pig farming and other small livestock.

The key informants mentioned that female beneficiaries received training in cultivating sorghum, rapoko, and millet that are drought resistant. The reasoning behind this was that these crops would improve household food security and that the surplus can be sold to enhance disposable household income.

4.3.2 Land reform as a WEE initiative: the link to combating violence against women

In addition, WEE resulting from the land reform was spoken about in the interviews in positive terms. LOC said:

“When more women are economically empowered, then they will be less victimized by their male partners or even fall prey to all forms of exploitation and abuse within the society.”

The same sentiment was expressed in the FGDs with a respondent from FGD4 saying:

“There is a strong interconnection between women’s economic empowerment and gender-based violence; I used to be a victim of abuse. My husband used to hit me in front of the kids. But now with the bit of income that I am bringing to the family, my husband is now respecting me.”

LOA also concurred:

“The causes of violence experienced by women in various cases are economic in nature, so, if women would engage in self-supporting livelihood activities; this will lessen instances of them being abused by men.”

4.3.3 The impact of WEE on families and households

The economic empowerment of women farmers through the efforts of state and non-state efforts were narrated in the interviews as essential parts of the process to improve the well-being of the families in the wards of Makoni district. For example, a participant from FGD5 said:

“Children now stay in school longer, because their mothers can also contribute to paying for their school fees, or to buy uniforms and stationery. Thus, empowering a woman means empowering their children too, for women have been socialised to perform care duties. These children are also supporting their parents on the farms with labour during the weekends and holidays.”

4.3.4 The problems of the FTLRP

These initiatives were not without problems, however, as revealed by a key informant:

“This has not completely achieved the empowerment of women. For instance, women in some of the selected wards in Makoni district have been advocating for the establishment of agricultural banks which can offer soft loans to women so that they would expand their livelihood activities.”

This theme was followed-up on in the FDGs, and the women revealed to the researcher that credit facilities from banks that entitle women are hard to come by, and that in general loans were more readily offered to men.

A participant from FGD2 remarked:

“Women are always finding it difficult to access financial support from the various financial institutions. The reason has been largely that the financial organisations lack trust that these women would be capable of repaying back the loan.”

Similar to these findings, Moyo (2004) observes that the land reform failed to adequately address gender inequities and disparities, regardless of the role women

play in subsistence agriculture. However, it is important to note that gender imbalances in Zimbabwe are a result of pre-colonial, colonial, and post-colonial customs, culture and gender stereotypes which resulted in the patriarchal nature of the Zimbabwean communities (Mutopo *et al* 2014). More so, despite the initiative by the Zimbabwean government to address the land issue, the provincial Land Information Management Systems database for Manicaland province, maintains that women occupied about 14.7% of the total model A1 beneficiaries and 9% of the model A2 beneficiaries (Chigumira 2010). Such statistical data revealed that women were not given priority in land allocation. This could negatively impact on food security, women's disposable household income, assets, nutrition base, and other investments which could have been made by women as key stakeholders, family caregivers, and beneficiaries of the land reform programme (Scoones 2011).

4.4 INCOME-GENERATING ACTIVITIES FOR WOMEN LAND BENEFICIARIES AFTER PHASE 2

The researcher explored the issues as to whether female land beneficiaries from Makoni district were empowered to engage in income-generating activities that would improve their livelihoods. The interviews revealed that women engaged in subsistence farming and production did so just for household consumption. In the section below, data is presented and discussed in terms of six income-generating activities commonly adopted by female farmers who were land reform beneficiaries in the study area. These were maize production, sugar bean production, the unpopularity of growing vegetables, the comparative perceived advantages of growing tobacco, livestock farming, and other income-diversification activities. These six sub-themes are discussed in turn below.

4.4.1 The primacy of maize production

The dominant crop grown by these women land beneficiaries was maize. This was often contrasted with the earning potential from sugar bean production in the interviews as the quotations below demonstrated.

Respondent LOB had this to say:

“Maize is one of the major crops that is being grown within the communities, as compared to other crops.”

This was also supported by respondent LOD who said that:

“Maize continues to be an important crop grown by rural women and only a few engage in other cash products such as tobacco and sugar beans.”

Maize had just been used for household consumption, with the very little surplus being sold. Therefore, over-reliance on maize implied that these household had little disposable household income, as the maize could not fetch much at the market. A tonne of maize was sold for less than Z\$125, despite the higher production costs relative to the selling price. Over-reliance on maize means that farmers could not produce much during droughts. Despite these challenges, the women mentioned that they still opted to grow maize, because they received some free maize seeds under the presidential agricultural scheme.

4.4.2 Sugar bean production as a long-term option

Key informant LOE narrated that red speckled sugar beans are regarded as a long-term investment in small crop cultivation:

“Once the beans have been dried, they can be kept for a longer time until the demand increases. A bucket of beans ranges from Z\$20.00 to Z\$30.00 which is good money.”

A focus group discussant (FGD3) confirmed the market value of sugar beans by saying:

“On average one can get Z\$350.00 to Z\$700.00 as profit during a farming season from sugar beans, which is high enough for an income if you compare it to what people earn who are formally employed.”

A woman from FGD2, however, noted that:

“The cropping sessions for sugar beans demand a high initial investment and this is difficult because we encounter long periods of time during which we have no cash. So, if you just go for the money you can

eventually earn from sugar beans, then many women will just remain in dire poverty, as they will not have other financial sources or crops with which to feed their families. This made worse because there are no loans for women to invest in sugar bean production.”

This was supported during FGD3 when it was pointed out by a discussant that:

“The women have to wait for about three to four months before harvesting sugar beans or to be able to generate enough income to fend for their families.”

4.4.3 The poor uptake of vegetable growing

The researcher followed up this discussion by enquiring about the cultivation of vegetables such as cucumbers, tomatoes, carrots, and butternuts. It emerged from the interviews that these are not popular cash crops.

Respondent LOB said:

“These crops are perishable; they earn the least amounts and are difficult to store.”

Participant LOC pointed out that:

“Cucumbers, carrots, and butternuts are sold to vendors and food outlets in Makoni town for as little as Z\$1.00 per packet. This is very little considering how much is needed in terms of labour and capital to produce these crops.”

Respondent LOE supported this assertion by saying:

“Tomatoes range from Z\$9.00 to Z\$10.00 a bucket (weighs around 20 kilograms) but when the market is flooded, women are forced to sell at Z\$2.00 a bucket which is far below the expected market price.”

4.4.4 Growing tobacco

The FGD participants discussed the relative advantages of growing tobacco as opposed to vegetables. In this regard, a discussant from FGD2 said:

“We get around Z\$1 500.00 from the sale of tobacco on half an acre of land as compared to Z\$180.00 for butternuts, carrots and cucumber on the same piece of land. Therefore, it could be more ideal to grow tobacco as compared to other crops.”

One woman from FGD4 confirmed:

“By growing tobacco, there is an improved disposable household income for rural women. Although it is best to engage in different economic activities, women concentrate on cash crop production. Families can now afford to buy groceries and ensure balanced diets in the home. School children can now remain in schools, where the primary schools charge around Z\$20.00 and secondary Z\$55.00 per school term.”

4.4.5 Livestock production

The researcher posed questions about livestock production as an income-generating activity among female farmers in the selected study site. This elicited mixed reactions from respondents as detailed below. Chickens (for meat and eggs) were regarded as a viable option for income diversification, with pigs and goats added as secondary options. However, livestock farming was not pursued with vigour, given the amount of financial capital that was required to venture into this activity and allow for larger scale livestock production. For example, a respondent from FGD1 commented that:

“Other than doing farming businesses, the women are also engaged in other small-scale income-generating activities such as keeping indigenous chickens, rabbits and turkeys. These are meant to complement households’ food needs, not for selling at the market.”

This was corroborated by the key informant interviews and respondent LOC had this to say:

“A number of families keeps chickens. The chickens are kept for family consumption such as meat and eggs. People also get manure which they use in their vegetable gardens.”

On prompting the female beneficiaries in the FDGs on this matter, a respondent from FGD4 said:

“A chicken fetches around \$5.00, maximum \$7.00, but often even less than that, so they are lowly rated in terms of obtaining a decent household income.”

This was supported by a respondent from FGD5, who said:

“Kuti ukwanise fees yemwana weprimary unototengesa huku 4 danga richibva rapera (In order to raise fees for a primary school-going child one is obliged to sell no less than 4 chickens, thereby exhausting stocks).”

The researcher discovered that piggery was regarded as a valuable and valued form of livestock production in Makoni. Respondent LOA explained that:

“Pigs give birth to a large number of offspring. Up to fifteen piglets [...] and they can be sold at six months, thereby raising money for the family.”

This was supported by respondent LOB, who said:

“Pigs are sold to raise school fees, to buy school uniforms and stationery for children in schools. Families are also using the money from selling pigs to purchase maize for mealie-meal.”

LOE also stated:

“The meat from pigs is sold at Z\$5.00 per kilogram, which is much more than what can for example be obtained from other meat such as beef.”

This was corroborated by a respondent from FGD3:

“The returns from pigs are being high, and the meat can improve household nutrition.”

Despite the high returns on piggery, many women did not take it up. When the researcher probed for the reasons, respondents noted a lack of start-up capital. The women also indicated that traditionally they were socialised into owning small livestock, such as chickens. Rearing bigger livestock was reserved for men. The few women who could venture into piggery received tough competition from men.

The interviews revealed that goats were regarded as important small livestock kept by beneficiaries from the selected wards in Makoni district. This was because a goat is able to produce to a maximum of two kids a year. A respondent from the FGD1 said:

“Goats are not expensive to keep. They can act as a form of insurance against emergencies. The goat pen is cheap to construct. And goats feed on shrubs and grass on the farms – these are readily available, so there is no need to purchase additional feed. The farmers sell goats to butcheries, but also to individuals throughout the year. The prices range from Z\$25 to Z\$35 for adult goats.”

Finally, key informant LOD revealed that:

“Some women are also engaged on cattle-fattening projects. They sell the cattle to abattoirs in Rusape. However, what is emerging is that these buyers are paying much less for these cattle as they prefer to buy cattle from male farmers. The argument cited had been that women have been negatively labelled not to produce quality beasts, as this big livelihood engagement has been thought to be well suited for men.”

LOB also cited that:

“Those women who may want to sell their fattened cattle would then ask other men to do it on their behalf. The challenge has been that these middlemen would then ask for high rewards for their services, hence jeopardising the women from getting much from their livelihood activity.”

Small livestock keeping was thus narrated as a viable income-generating strategy for female beneficiaries of the FTLRP in the Makoni district. It was interesting to note that such livestock production was regarded as a way of earning cash that could be used to pay for children's school fees as well as purchasing of school uniforms and

stationery. Despite the popularity of maize production, cash incomes from livestock sales (pigs, goats, and chickens for meat or eggs), were also set aside to purchase mealie meal for food. A lot more can be done in terms of varied economic activities such as food gardening and small livestock production. Improved livelihood is measured by increased household income, improved food security, and reduced vulnerability at the community level (Lefton 2013). Therefore, a lot must still be done to ensure women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods in the selected wards of Makoni district.

4.4.6 Diversification of income-generating activities

Singh *et al* (2012) opine that empowering people should involve increasing as well as diversifying people's means of livelihood. As people's livelihoods continue to improve, their empowerment is also enhanced. IFAD (2016) articulates that when rural women are empowered with land as a physical asset, they can develop it through agricultural productivity. However, apart from land, Singh *et al* (2015) maintain that women need other essential assets such as liquid capital, farming implements such as ploughs, oxen, labour, fertilizers, and seeds. Based on this, the researcher posed specific questions about local women farmers' attempts at diversifying their income-generating activities.

The interviews revealed that, as much as the women were trying to engage in varied income-generating activities, the rate of adoption of diversified income-generating strategies has been slow. This is because much of the income is spent on food, educational assistance, and other household needs. During FGD5, a respondent opined:

"In business, just like cash crop production, people take risks but there is no guarantee of getting profits always."

Respondent LOE said:

"Group members also practise mukando [an Internal Savings and Lending or ISAL cooperative to which a group contributes] as another livelihood option. The women can borrow money at a 10% interest rate to bring them back on track."

Respondent LOB said:

“Women engage in income savings and lending schemes to ensure continuity of their farming practices after every harvest season.”

A respondent from FGD2 confirmed:

“Groups are made up of 10 members each contributing Z\$1.00 to Z\$2.00 a month. The money is loaned specifically to those in need; savings are deposited into a CBZ Holdings account.”

It became clear to the researcher that the ISAL savings were not only intended for survival on the same practices year after year, but rather for some groups to consider moving into mixed farming. For example, a respondent from FGD3 said:

“The proceeds from ISALs are shared at the end of the year. But we are planning also to use this money to diversify our farming, especially to venture into poultry as well as to purchase farming inputs such as 50kg of maize seeds per individual.”

Beyond the ISALs, women farmers in the study site tried to find alternative income-earning opportunities to make ends meet for them and their dependents. In this regard, key informant LOC mentioned:

“These women undertake employment creation, where provide their labour as workers, especially during the ploughing and weeding season. They are paid Z\$5.00 per day.”

However, LOA noted that:

“The amount which these female workers get as casual workers is very little to provide them with enough household support.”

The findings confirm some rudimentary attempts at the diversification of income-generating activities. Agricultural livelihoods activities, ranging from the growing of maize and tobacco still enjoy primacy in agricultural production. It also emerged that only a few women engaged in the cattle fattening scheme. Those who did, faced challenges, such as low return on investment. Respondents confirmed that women

farmers received less financial support than their male counterparts. It also emerged that the other crops being cultivated by rural women are beans, onions, carrots, cucumbers, and tomatoes, despite the unpopularity of vegetable growing.

Livelihood diversification speaks to food security as well. The FAO (2010) says that food security exists when all people in a given household have adequate and nutritious food for a healthy life throughout the year. Additionally, from the data, it was noted that the choice of crops were based on what they believed would earn the largest cash rewards in the short term.

The importance of ISALs is well-established in the study site and is vital for these women to improve their livelihood activities. More so, access to ISALs are easier for these rural women due to the low transaction costs involved and the ease of access in cases of difficulties or emergencies. One might argue that, for instance, the total amount of money contributed through ISALs by an individual is about Z\$12.00 for a group of 10 members, and this amounts to Z\$120.00 annually. This adds little to the overall investments in the Zimbabwean economy. On the whole, a Z\$120.00 financial saving for a rural woman means the survival of her household.

Diversifying rural farming activities is needed in order to improve women's livelihood activities. Despite the efforts made by women in Makoni to participate in different income-generating activities, the interviews confirmed that there are some serious challenges. Men were favoured in terms of financial support and other community engagements. The Makoni community, like many African communities, especially in Zimbabwe, is patriarchal arranged, so that women are allowed only limited assets.

4.5 SUPPORT STRUCTURES AND RESOURCES FOR WOMEN'S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

Various support structures have been involved in supporting women's empowerment activities after the land reform in Zimbabwe. The involvement of these support institutions, like government ministries, includes land distribution and the provision of water and pest management. From the interviews, sub-themes contouring this theme were the central role of the state in providing land, challenges for women to access

state loans, concerns about water supply, an insufficient state response to this concern, and training provided by the state. These sub-themes are explored in greater detail below.

4.5.1 Government providing land to women

The central role played by government was readily mentioned during the FDGs. For example, a discussant from FGD3 said:

“The government is playing a crucial role in our farming activities, giving us as women, land and ensuring that there is no monopoly of this land by male individuals.”

This was supported by a respondent from FGD2, who said:

“Vebazi rinoona nezvemadzimai muhurumende vakatibatsirawo nekutitsvagira munda iwoyo watiri kushandisa, (The Ministry of Women’s Affairs in Zimbabwean government assisted us by securing pieces of land on which we are farming).”

The key informants also spoke of the central role of government, for example respondent LOB stated:

“Some women in the district have benefited from the land reform initiative that was adopted by the government. Their land sizes vary from 15 to 25 hectares.”

The interview data thus revealed that the government, through various ministries, undertook numerous efforts to assist women to improve their livelihood activities. This motive has been enshrined in the Government of Zimbabwe’s 2002 report, which mandated different ministries, to be effectively involved in empowering women through agricultural activities (Goebel 2005). Human Rights Watch (2002) states that the participation of women in agriculture can be attributed to the availability of farms and the dependency on land for existence by rural dwellers.

4.5.2 Challenges in land tenure and poor access to state financial support for women farmers

Notwithstanding this acknowledgement of the state efforts, a central theme emerging from the interviews was the tenuous nature of the land ownership and the lack of financial support to enable full WEE. For example, a discussant from FGD4 said:

“Women are only landholders and not owners because only a few women were given the 99-year lease from the government. The reason has been that the women do not have the necessary asset base which can act as surety for them to obtain the land lease documents.”

From the FGD2 it was remarked:

“Women who have benefited from the land reform programme are failing to exhaust their full potential in terms of farming and other empowerment initiatives due to lack of adequate capital like land, financial resources in the form of loans to hire casual labour.”

This was acknowledged by the key informants, for example respondent LOC revealed:

“Furthermore, the women are being denied access to loans from financial and government institutions, due to a lack of collateral security to support their applications for farming loans.”

The researcher found that microfinance from financial and other government institutions would allow the women to access farming inputs and assets that can improve crop yields. Alas, these women face challenges in accessing such financial support. The main reason cited by respondents was that these financial institutions lacked trust in the women's capacity to repay loans. Another challenge cited was that some financial organisations feared that if a married woman accesses a loan without the consent of her husband, he would prevent his wife from repaying it. This could be a result of the patriarchal nature of Zimbabwean societies, where men dominate decision-making about all matters, including financial ones. Pitt and Khandaker (1998) argue that women's access to microcredit increases their control over non-land assets and expands their role in decision-making processes.

4.5.3 Access to water and irrigation

Respondent LOA also noted that there has been an attempt by the government to provide irrigation water for the selected wards in Makoni district, but that this met with challenges:

“The major challenge being faced by land beneficiaries is over-reliance on rain-fed farming with very little irrigation. The government through the Zimbabwe National Water Authority has been failing in this regard. Maybe there is a need to engage NGOs who are into water and sanitation to assist farmers in Makoni district with irrigation water.”

Respondent LOB supported this view, saying:

“Due to the current dry spell sweeping across the country, perennial rivers and dams are drying up, making it difficult for the farmers in Makoni to receive adequate water supply.”

The FGDs confirmed the concerns about water, for example a woman from FGD5 said:

“Given the number of women participating in farming activities, the few dams in the area can no longer sustain the needs of all the women in crop production. More so, there is a lot of silting of these dams as people are indiscriminately cutting down trees which could have prevented erosion.”

4.5.4 Training for women farmers

The study revealed that women from the selected wards were also trained by different government ministries on various agricultural production activities and on market linkages for their products. Despite this, many research participants reiterated that women are still not able to compete favourably with male farmers due to some socio-economic hindrances. The major issue was that women continue to carry the largest burden for domestic chores, such as cooking, laundry, cleaning, and childminding. This burden was such that it prevented some women from attending training courses offered in the area.

In this regard a discussant from FGD3 said:

“Agritex Extension Officers trained and mentored us on issues related to soil management, conservation, marketing, and pest and disease control.”

A participant from FGD1 also concurred:

“The Department of Small to Medium Enterprises (SMEs) has been key in assisting us with business management, record keeping, budgeting, market linkages and other financial literacy issues.”

This was supported by a respondent from FGD2, who highlighted:

“Representatives from the Ministry of Women Affairs have been involved in training us on gender issues and its effect on women’s agricultural and livelihoods activities. These functions are outlined in the Government’s national economic blueprint plan. It emphasises the technical role that the government must play in supporting women in development issues.”

Various interviews confirmed training provided by the Department of Agritex and the Ministry of SMEs on issues such as agricultural management, accounting and budgeting. This is outlined in the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZIMASSET) under its food security and nutrition pillar. However, Chigumira (2010), notes that Zimbabwe’s medium-term plan lacks an entrepreneurship drive which has detrimental outcomes to vulnerable groups, as there is limited financial support that is given to entrepreneurs due to a dwindling Zimbabwean economy. However, the women are negatively affected in a bid to improve their as had been discussed in this research.

4.6 THE ROLE OF NON-STATE PARTNERS IN ASSISTING RURAL WOMEN LAND BENEFICIARIES

The researcher discovered that non-state actors, especially NGOs, assist women farmers from Makoni district. Such support is usually in the form of training, information

sharing, pest and infection control measures, and access to additional income-generating projects. For example, a respondent from FGD4 said:

“More than 30 women were trained by an NGO named GOAL which operates in the district in ward 23. The training conducted focused on proper farming methods, income-generating projects, small business management, engagement of women in issues of gender and decision making.”

Another respondent from FGD2 also mentioned this:

“GOAL divided the women into groups of 6 people each and these women were capacitated on various income-generating projects that include farming, ISALs and poultry. The aim was to improve the household income, livelihood initiatives and food security for our families.”

The role played by GOAL in the study site was confirmed by key informant LOB:

“Out of the 30 women trained by GOAL, 10 have greatly improved on their livelihood activities. 15 partial improved, while the remaining five did not improve at all.”

Thus, despite the training offered, from the data obtained it can be concluded that the larger percentage of the women did not fully improve on their livelihood activities. Indeed, obtaining knowledge could have been vital, but these women lacked material/physical resources to assist them in improving their food security and other livelihood initiatives. It was not only GOAL that has been capacitating these rural women, but other organisations were also found to play a significant role in educating the women land beneficiaries. In this regard, a respondent from FGD5 said:

“Various capacity building workshops were conducted by various development partners in Makoni district. They offered training that was not only about farming, but also about health, gender and business management, record-keeping and business proposals.”

The training initiatives presented by state and non-state actors were highly valued by the women, as one participant from FGD4 explained:

“Training like this generated change here – we all have stories that speak of how women, after such training, could improve their farming assets, and their income, and their livelihoods.”

From the study, it also emerged that external partners assisted in controlling both livestock and plant diseases within Makoni community. In this regard, key informant LOC revealed:

“Recently onions were attacked by pest and diseases and wilted and dried up. Only some survived. Then various external partners joined hands and started assisting the women farmers by giving them information and also pesticides and fungicides to control the disease.”

Responding to a general discussion on pest and disease control in farming, a respondent from FGD1 remarked:

“It is very difficult to address the challenge of diseases. As women, we cannot afford the right products to prevent pests or diseases so we resort to using cheap chemicals and this negatively affects the yield. Our plight was only addressed with the support from external partners.”

These problems were also revealed to the researcher as affecting livestock farming. For example, a respondent from FGD5 reported:

“I lost three cattle during the rainy season. They got sick because I could not afford the correct dipping dosage. So, now I have no cattle and I have to hire people to plough and till my land.”

Another area in which non-state actors supported the women farmers in the study site was with seeds for crops. In this regard, key informant LOB said:

“Some of the women farmers could not afford the recommended crop variety, forcing them to procure cheap-quality seeds, resulting in poor yields which fetched prices well below the minimum at the market.”

The findings revealed that for the women farmers in Makoni to succeed, government efforts should be complemented by external partners' efforts. In this regard respondent LOA said:

“Integration and linkages of government and NGOs’ efforts improved acquisition of assets and household income for the women farmers in Makoni district.”

Women farmers from Makoni were also capacitated by external partners in different areas as a way of improving their livelihood. What emerged from the study was that the women farmers were taught farming, micro-financing, and project management skills. In many of these training programmes, the value of cooperation was emphasised, and women were encouraged to create networks with each other so that they could assist one another with skills and information. It also emerged that external partners were keen to work with groups because they find it easier to coordinate and monitor activities of networking groups.

In the FDGs, research participants spoke about their ongoing efforts to network with and support each other with information on how they were growing and selling their crops and markets they accessed. From Makura-Paradza (2010), group lending can form the mainstay of micro-financing smallholder agriculture which can remedy the lack of access to commercial financial institutions. Pitt and Khandaker (1998) opine that women’s access to micro-credit could increase their control of non-land assets and more, expanded their role in decision-making in addressing household challenges. Makura-Paradza (2010) concludes that micro-credits have prevented, protected, promoted and transformed the lives of poor people, especially vulnerable women.

4.7 STRATEGIES ADOPTED TO STRENGTHEN WOMEN’S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT IN ZIMBABWE

This study also explored strategies that can be adapted to strengthen their economic empowerment after the land reform. Key informant LOA said:

“The best option to empower women economically was through giving women land. If women have access to land they can engage in various livelihood activities for their self-sustenance.”

Key informant LOC said:

“Access to land by women has been very vital in enhancing women economic empowerment. These women can now be involved in numerous income-generating initiatives such as crop and animal production among them.”

The FDGs confirmed this view that access to land through the FTLRP was the first step towards WEE. For example, a participant from FGD4 remarked:

“Women that received their own pieces of land during the land reform programme now have an opportunity to decide on how they will use their land. Unlike in the past, where these women had to consult their husbands or any other male figure from the family for ideas.”

From FGD3 it was noted:

“Unequal access to land between women and men has been a major impediment to women's economic empowerment as traditional laws looked down upon women as owners of the land.”

A respondent from FGD2 said:

“When women have full control of land, productivity tends to be higher resulting in improved household disposable income, in the end; these women will be able to fend for themselves and their families. “

The access to land through FTLRP enabled women to become independent decision-makers in society, which was meant to enhance their access to resources for economic empowerment. In this regard key informant LOB said:

“As a result of the land reform exercise, women from communities are now committee leaders of different farming groups. They are chairpersons, secretaries or treasurers.”

This sentiment was also echoed by LOD who said:

“Besides incorporating women in decision-making committees, the women are also now consulted in various development activities in the ward.”

A respondent from FGD1 said:

“Because we now have women leader representatives, we have leaders who are willing to give an ear to women’s voices...this is to support our livelihood activities...and they even lobby for women’s empowerment, in various walks of life, including economic empowerment. This has made it possible for us to participate in different livelihood activities, such as animal production as well venturing into full-time farming using improved farming methods.”

The data obtained from this study revealed varied strategies that can be employed to strengthen women’s economic empowerment in Zimbabwe during and after the land reform exercise. These strategies included giving women land and control over these pieces of land. Moyo (2004) and Goebel (2005) opine that land rights can be a fundamental prerequisite to economically empower women, thus giving them the buoyancy, they need to tackle life challenges, including gender inequalities. Moyo (2004) notes that, in developing countries, women are restricted from owning land. This could have been a result of gender norms and the patriarchal system that perpetuate male dominance over women. This gender disparity was as well noted in the selected wards of Makoni district. Coupled with ownership for land, some women are now incorporated in various committees and have now the power to make decisions in society, including livelihood initiatives in which these women can embark on. Eyben *et al* (2008: 34) conclude that re-distribution of assets such as land reform programmes is one effective strategy for WEE.

This inequality discourages women from investing in the land which they do not fully own. This negatively affects productivity thus exacerbating disparities. Kabeer (2015) alludes that while giving land to women is an important point to stimulate women empowerment, it is just the beginning, more still must be done to ensure total economic empowerment. What also emerged from the study is that women’s participation in development and management activities had been argued to be a beneficial form of economic empowerment as well as to improve their farming methods. On the whole, if these and other strategies are followed and incorporated in society, they can then lead to women's economic empowerment.

4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the researcher presented data on WEE for sustainable livelihoods due to the FTLRP in the selected wards of Makoni district. The analysis interpretation was informed by the study objectives. Chapter 5 contained the summary, conclusion, and recommendations.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this study was to explore WEE for sustainable livelihoods through the FTLRP in Makoni District of Manicaland province, Zimbabwe. The study was informed by the theories of empowerment and by the sustainable livelihoods framework as they are interconnected in their features and philosophies, especially with the reference of empowerment for the rural women through sustainable livelihoods.

McBride (2014) follows an instrumentalist approach to women's empowerment. The instrumentalist approach or the WID approach entails that women's acquisition of assets, education or entrepreneurial skills culminate in these women's empowerment.

The following themes were discussed; the role of Phase 2 of the land reform in Zimbabwe in improving women's livelihoods, income-generating activities for women land beneficiaries after Phase 2 of the land reform in Zimbabwe, support structures and resources for WEE, role of external partners in assisting rural women land beneficiaries, and strategies which could be adopted to strengthen women's economic empowerment in Zimbabwe after the FTLRP.

Zimbabwe underwent a period of land acquisition and distribution that culminated in two phases. During these land programme exercises, white farmers were dispossessed of their land which was then redistributed to the black Zimbabweans to address the injustice and unequal land ownership between the whites and blacks in Zimbabwe that have been aggravated by colonialism.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTERS

In the first chapter the researcher discussed the background to the study, theoretical approaches that informed this study, research objectives, problem statement, the

rationale for the study, research design and methodology, structure of the dissertation, and definition of the key terms were also provided.

The second chapter is an in-depth discussion of the theoretical approaches that guided this study and presented a review of related literature on WEE for sustainable livelihoods through land reform. The chapter also outlines the historical background of the land reform in Zimbabwe. The literature indicated that, after attaining political independence and in a bid to retain itself in power, the government embarked on the land reform programme to address the ills perpetuated by colonialism. However, this intervention was ravaged by patriarchal norms, values, beliefs, and gender influence where Zimbabwean black men benefitted more than Zimbabwean black women. This is despite the view that the Zimbabwean constitution and the SDGs clearly emphasise the need for equity regardless of gender, race, ethnicity among others, in all matters of life and development. Thus, lack of equitable distribution of land during the two phases might have negatively impacted on women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods.

In the second chapter, the researcher explains how the few women who obtained land under the FTLRP in Zimbabwe, embarked on various livelihood initiatives in order to improve household disposable income and food security. However, these women had limited financial resources and lacked maximum support from various stakeholders, including the Zimbabwean government. Traditional gender roles heavily influence how women are regarded in society and in issues to do with development (Lefton 2013).

In the third chapter, the researcher presented the research methodology. In it the researcher explored the methods and techniques used to discuss WEE for sustainable livelihoods through the land reform in Zimbabwe. The researcher outlined the data-collection methods, namely, in-depth interviews and focus-group discussions. The researcher discussed the sampling procedure that was employed in this research.

In the fourth chapter, the researcher presented and analysed data that was collected from selected wards of Makoni District. What arose from the findings was that only a few women received land as compared to men during the land redistribution exercise

and that they could not compete with their male counterparts in terms of engaging in economic initiatives for sustainable livelihoods.

The fifth chapter is a synopsis of the research and summaries of chapters. Conclusions and recommendations regarding women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods through the land reform in Zimbabwe are provided. Finally,, the researcher discusses the limitations of the study and suggest recommendations based on the findings.

5.3 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

After the attainment of political independence in 1980, the Zimbabwe government embarked on initiatives that were meant to address and reverse the ills of colonisation (Moyo 2004; Scoones *et al* 2011). One focus was to look at land distribution according to race. Whites occupied productive and arable land with adequate rainfall, while the blacks were driven into reserves which had poor soil and limited rainfall (Human Rights Watch 2002). This then culminated in phases 1 and 2 of the land redistribution exercises, where the Zimbabwe government took land which initially belonged to whites and gave it to blacks. However, despite the government's desire to address the land issue, what emerged from this study was that only a few women benefited from the land reform programme. As a result, this negatively affected these women's economic empowerment.

Globally, the issue of gender disparity has been central in defining how men and women own the means of production (Lefton 2013). Many societies are patriarchal in nature, and hence women often do not have equal participation in socio-political activities.

When the engrained constitutional circumstances delineated by the Lancaster House Agreement expired in the early 1990s, the Zimbabwe Government outlined initiatives to address land reform (Fisher 2010). They proposed a new national land policy which was propagated as *the Zimbabwean Land Acquisition Act of 1992*. This gave the government powers to acquire and redistribute any land. In the 2000s, Zimbabwe war veterans argued that they should be given land previously owned by the white farmers

(Scoones *et al* 2011). This resulted in what is called the FTLRP. The Zimbabwean land reform programme was conducted in two phases. The FTLRP which was carried out in Zimbabwe, between 2000 and 2002 was a radical effort at a pro-poor distribution of land (Mgugu 2008).

The land programme addressed, to some extent, the country's contentious legacy of historic injustice and social and racial inequalities and broadened the base of economic participation by Zimbabwean blacks.

Once women are empowered with resources such as land, their livelihoods would improve if all the necessary farming inputs are in place (see subheadings 2.6.4; 2.6.5 & 2.6.6.1). This would improve women's food security and disposable income. Food security exists when all people in a given household have adequate and nutritious food for a healthy life (FAO 2010). Food insecurity is a state in which reliable access to food is limited (see subheading 2.6.4). Thus, there is a connection between women's empowerment through land and sustainable livelihoods. Sustainable livelihoods would involve higher output on the farm for empowered women and would lead to an improvement in food security.

In order to accomplish WEE, the fundamental factors that lead to economic inequality must be addressed (see subheading 2.6.5). These dynamics comprise of individual and community resources, norms, and institutions which negatively impact on WEE. The resources included human, financial, social, and physical capital (see subheading 2.6.5). The norms and institutions are rules, regulations, policies, and traditions that control and influence the activities and relationships within society. Institutions embrace laws that govern economic and financial systems, marriage, and inheritance. These regulate how women are perceived in society. Women should be involved in developmental and managerial activities as well as occupying senior decision-making positions in society so that they can influence decisions and policies (see subheading 2.6.6.2 & 2.6.6.3).

Qualitative data revealed that:

- Phase 2 of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe was intended to improve women's livelihoods through income-generating activities for women land beneficiaries;

- Support structures and resources for WEE were envisaged, but were slow to materialise; and
- Some assistance was rendered by external partners to women land beneficiaries, but access to such help was not comprehensive.

This study established what had been gathered from the literature, namely that patriarchy and gender implications have negatively influenced women's access the means of production. The study confirmed that the Zimbabwean society is largely male-dominated, and this has led men to monopolise developmental initiatives, including access to land. This is despite the fact that the Zimbabwean government is a signatory to world charters which promote equality and equity of humankind regardless of gender, creed, ethnicity, socio-background or political lines.

The theories of empowerment and sustainable livelihoods frameworks have guided this study. Livelihoods strategies could be employed by the poor, especially rural women farmers, to improve their food security and household disposable income. The livelihood activities include diversified, small-scale farming. However, for WEE to be effective, support from different players (external and governmental) is needed. This includes responsive public policies and programmes that are deliberately designed to support WEE.

The resultant outcomes for sustainable livelihoods include improved access to livelihood assets (IFAD 2016). In addition, the outcome of greater livelihoods security encompassed higher and more stable incomes and reduced risk to environmental shocks and vulnerabilities (see subheading 2.6.6.1, 4.3 & 4.4). In the end, livelihood security would also entail food security for different households.

Providing women with financial or physical resources can be a noble motive for empowering women economically (Singh *et al* 2015). Therefore, allocating land to women and giving them land rights could be vital. However, from this study, it emerged that few women obtain these land rights. The women farmers were expected to depend on male farmers to gain access to land (Chigumira 2010). Moyo (2004) alludes

that, in developing countries, women are restricted from owning land (see subheading 2.6.6.1).

Hallett (2017) and McBride (2014) indicate that unequal access to land between men and women are major indicators of gender inequality across the world. They are commonly experienced in rural areas, where traditional and customary laws and practices are the major contributors to gender inequality. The research findings noted that women had been discouraged from investing in the land due to a failure to receive adequate support from the government or external partners (see subheading 4.5 & 4.6).

There are various strategies that can be employed to empower women economically under the land reform programme (see subheading 4.7). The strategies encompass providing women with land and granting them control over these pieces of land (Goebel 2005). Women could also be put into various committees, where they have power to make decisions regarding their own livelihood initiatives.

There are two theories that can succinctly support the idea of WEE initiatives, namely empowerment and sustainable livelihood frameworks. The literature and this study revealed that there is a lot of integration in the features and philosophies of the two models, in the quest to describe the empowerment of women. This study contended that women's total empowerment should be viewed in their total acquisition of assets, education, entrepreneurial skills, and an address of gender dynamics which negatively impact on them (see subheading 2.7).

5.4 NEW INSIGHTS UNCOVERED IN THIS STUDY

The FTLRP has been criticised in that it was grossly responsible for the economic demise of the general Zimbabwean economy (Goebel 2005). Given this effect, the study explored the extent to which the land reform economically empowered Zimbabwean women in particular. Research by Goebel (2005) and Gaidzanwa (1995) on how women were economically empowered through the land reform programme were general cursory. Both Goebel (2005) and Gaidzanwa (1995) focused primarily on land ownership, income generated from the land and little on women's ability to

thrive economically and have the power to make or act on economic decisions. Thus, achieving women's economic empowerment involves crafting enabling environments that eliminate all forms of gender discrepancies which militate against WEE for sustainable livelihoods.

Additionally, WEE also involves improved livelihoods. Yet prior studies, like those by Goebel (2015) and Gaidzanwa (1995) have done little to connect WEE with sustainable livelihoods. This study, therefore, discussed the extent to which land reform in Zimbabwe empowered women economically with respect to all aspects of WEE.

The study on WEE for sustainable livelihoods through the land reform in Zimbabwe in selected wards of Makoni district assisted the researcher to gather rich data from respondents, which included women farm beneficiaries and land officers from Makoni District, on how women improved their livelihoods due to the land reform programme. In this study, the motivation was to understand how the women farm beneficiaries themselves perceive the land distribution exercise and more so on how gender differences have grossly impeded women's advancement in economic empowerment.

Respondents to this study opined that WEE is key in improving household income and improve people's livelihoods. This could be achieved by making deliberate efforts to provide women with adequate resources, at the same time addressing gender inconsistencies which discriminate women from realising their full potential for sustainable livelihoods. Land officers in this study indicated that, despite the government of Zimbabwe being a signatory to a number of international and regional charters that promote equity of all human beings regardless of gender, not to mention the country's constitution, a lot still needs to be done in actual practice in order to achieve and strengthen women's economic empowerment. For example, few women obtained land during the land reform programme, as well external institutions and even the government itself was not keen to provide enough support for these women to improve their livelihoods.

In the selected wards for this study, women pointed out that if they had been supported with adequate resources for their economic activities, it would boost their livelihoods

and therefore, able to fend their families. Thus, due to their poor and limited engagement in sustainable livelihoods, these women and their households encountered food insecurity and general poverty. The assumption is that poor livelihood activities often lead to food insecurity and limited household disposable income. In embarking on the land reform programme, the Zimbabwean government attempted to address the country's historical injustice, and social and racial inequalities. Despite this noble intention, the land reform exercise had been marred by unequal access and distribution of land between black women and men. This negatively impacted on women's quest for sustainable livelihoods.

5.5 SYNTHESIS OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Key themes that arose from this research are merged with the main research findings. Recommendations were provided on each theme raised.

5.5.1 The role of Phase 2 of the land reform in Zimbabwe in improving women's livelihoods

Between 2000 and 2002 the Zimbabwean government embarked on a radical land redistribution exercise (Richardson 2004). The programme addressed the country's historic injustice and racial inequities with regard to access to land. However, notwithstanding financial support from Britain, the first phase of Zimbabwe's land reform programme was generally regarded as unsuccessful (Makura-Paradza 2010). For instance, during this period the government of Zimbabwe was only able to provide a limited acreage as compared to the arable land in Zimbabwe (see subheading 2.2). Through the *Zimbabwean Land Acquisition Act of 1992*, which empowered the government to acquire any land as it saw fit, the land acquisition exercise was intensified in the year 2000s (Moyo & Yeros 2005). The FTLRP was intended to be conducted in an accelerated manner. Thus, the results of this land reform exercise have been viewed as devastating and have resulted in widespread food shortages.

Despite Moyo (2011) asserting that 168 671 families received land during the fast-track phase, of which 145 775 were landless families that received smaller farms and 2,896 were commercial black farmers, he does not explore the extent to which black

women were economically empowered by the land reform. In the next sections, the researcher summarised the effects of the land reform in Zimbabwe. However, one of the noted achievements of the land reform programme was that it provided women with a chance to own pieces of land, which was a movement from the traditional norms where few women could own land.

Regarding observations noted on the role of phase 2 of the land reform in Zimbabwe, it is recommended that:

- There should have been better planning for takeovers of land. The farming activities which made Zimbabwe the food basket of Southern Africa should not have been disturbed;
- The Zimbabwe government should have prioritised unused land for distribution to landless black people. This would have meant that all of the productive land in Zimbabwe could have been fully utilised for the benefit of the general populace; and
- A buy-in process to release their land should have been sought from the whites, so that the whites could continue as mentors to the black farmers in their livelihood initiatives.

5.5.2 Income-generating activities for women land beneficiaries after Phase 2 of the land reform in Zimbabwe

Participants from the selected wards in Makoni district practised mixed agriculture which included the keeping of small livestock and growing crops. The produce was mainly for household use and consumption while the surplus was sold in order to improve household income. Agricultural livelihoods activities included the growing of maize and tobacco as the major crops, while beans, onions, carrots, cucumbers, and tomatoes were also grown. The few women that engaged in cattle fattening complained that the middlemen were exploiting them by charging low prices for the fattened beasts.

Improved livelihood is measured by improved household income, improved food security, and reduced susceptibility at a community level to various challenges (Lefton

2013). The female farm beneficiaries could perform these varied livelihood activities within their newly acquired land. Internal Savings and Lending scheme activities (ISALs) were noted as essential for women's livelihood initiatives. However, women's savings had been eroded by the ever-rising costs of commodities, goods and services in Zimbabwe, due to the dwindling economy (Singh *et al* 2015).

Singh *et al* (2015) conclude that, empowering people should encompass increasing as well as varying people's means of survival which is their livelihood. However, from the study findings, it is clear that women farmers received minimal financial support compared to their male counterparts, either from external sources or government. Men within the selected wards were given preference in terms of financial aid and other community engagements. This could be a result of the patriarchal nature of society and the influence of how women are regarded in society.

Considering income-generating activities conducted by the female land beneficiaries to improve their livelihood, it is therefore recommended that:

- The government and external partners adequately support female land beneficiaries so that meaningful and adequate production is achieved. As long as women are not succinctly supported, WEE will not be achieved.
- It should be recognised that there is no biological justification for the view that women are inferior to men. The belief that men are better than women had been created by a male-dominated society to safeguard the interests of men. Therefore, it is recommended that both women and men should receive equal support regardless of gender. In fact, there could be a deliberate attempt to support women more, in order to achieve equity by addressing the injustice and imbalances that had been historically inflicted on women by the Zimbabwean patriarchal system.

5.5.3 Support structures and resources for women's economic empowerment

The research indicated that numerous support structures and resources have been committed to support women's economic empowerment. Government ministries and departments were involved in land distribution, provision of water, pest management,

and the training of farmers in agriculture and market linkages. However, the women in this study noted that they cannot compete with male farmers due to some socio-economic limitations. This is because of the burden on women to undertake all household chores such as cooking, laundry, sweeping, and childminding.

The Ministry of Women Affairs pointed out that the Zimbabwe government, through its different ministries, undertook to guarantee that rural women control various livelihood activities, including land. The Human Rights Watch (2002) concludes that the participation of women in agriculture could be linked to the availability of farms and women's reliance on land for survival. Despite government support, microfinance institutions supported women with farming inputs. These included the provision of 50 kilograms of maize seeds, 100 kilograms of compound D fertiliser and 150 kilograms of ammonium nitrate fertiliser. However, women farmers pointed out that they faced many restrictions in accessing financial support, as financial institutions felt the women might not be able to pay back their loans.

Another hindrance mentioned was that other financial organisations feared that if married women access loans without the blessing of their husbands or partners, the husbands may then stop their wives from repaying the loans. Again, the influence of patriarchy could be noted, where men would generally want to decide on issues, even those that concern women. The female beneficiaries pointed out that inequalities existed among women themselves, with those who possess enough political or economic influence enjoying greater advantages than others. Those women who rise to the top seldom support the emancipation of other women and would even collude with men to gain arable land or access financial support from institutions.

In view of support structures that assist in women's economic empowerment, the ensuing recommendations are made:

- The government and other key players in the economic field should continue to find ways that stimulate WEE; and
- Those women who have progressed should be seen as the drivers of the empowerment and emancipators of women, resulting in the creation of platforms to hear women's voices and to foster supportive women's networks.

5.5.4 Assistance rendered by external partners towards rural women land beneficiaries

External partners strengthened women farmers in order to improve their livelihood. These female farm beneficiaries were taught farming-related topics and farming management concepts. The researcher explored ideas on how the participants could create synergies among themselves in order to enhance their livelihood skills and knowledge. From the study, it was observed that external partners were keen to support groups and not individuals, for easy monitoring of the project activities.

External partners also capacitated women farmers on micro-financing, enhancing their ability to generate their own capital. Makura-Paradza (2010) points out that the model of group lending could provide remedies to shortcomings of financial institutions. Pitt and Khandaker (1998) acknowledge that women's access to microcredit could increase their control of non-land assets and more, expanded their role in decision making in addressing household challenges. Makura-Paradza (2010) concludes that micro-credits have protected, promoted and transformed the lives of poor people, especially vulnerable women.

In view of assistance rendered by external partners towards rural women land beneficiaries, it could be recommended that:

- Considering the economic melt-down faced by the Zimbabwean government and their failure to support and finance community activities, external partners should supplement government efforts in assisting disadvantaged people; and
- The government should provide an enabling environment for external partners who may want to assist the disadvantaged communities.

5.5.5 Strategies adopted to empower women economically

The findings revealed that varied strategies could be employed to strengthen WEE. These strategies include: giving women land and providing them with access to these pieces of land. Moyo (2004) and Goebel (2005) opine that land rights can be a central

prerequisite for economically empowering women, thus giving them the resilience, they need to address life challenges, including gender inequalities.

Despite the gender disparity that was noted in the selected wards of Makoni district some women are now incorporated in various committees and have now the capacity to make decisions in society, including livelihood initiatives. Eyben *et al* (2008: 34) conclude that the re-distribution of assets such as land reform exercise is one effective approach for WEE.

The inequality between women and men discourages women to invest in the land which they do not fully own. This negatively affects productivity thus, exacerbating disparities. While giving land to women is an important factor in stimulating WEE, it could only be the beginning, more still has to be done to ensure total economic empowerment. Women's participation in development and management activities had been argued to be a beneficial form of economic empowerment as well as to improve their farming methods. When these strategies and other notable interventions are fully adopted, it might then contribute to women's economic empowerment.

With regards to strategies which can be adapted to strengthen women economically, it is recommended that:

- The government of Zimbabwe and those who spearhead WEE should adopt approaches and procedures that are deliberately designed to support women empowerment and engagement; and
- Women who are formally trained, or who have proven themselves successful be enabled to train other women in sustainable livelihoods should do so.

5.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was limited to three selected wards in Makoni District. From the selected wards, data was obtained through interviews with key informants and FGDs with female land beneficiaries. Despite the purposeful selection of units of observation, rich data was gathered regarding WEE for sustainable livelihoods in the context of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe.

For the key informant interviews, the Zimbabwean employment code of conduct could have influenced the responses by the land officers. They did not overtly criticise state policies and regulations regarding the land reform exercise. As civil servants, these land officers represent the government and should be seen to safeguard its interests. In order to address this challenge, mutual trust was established between the researcher and the participants. The researcher constantly assured the participants that their views and responses were only meant for the purpose of research. More so, pseudonyms were used in this study and the researcher will not disclose the names of participants.

5.7 MEETING THE STATED RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary objective was to expose the extent to which Phase 2 of the land reform in Zimbabwe economically empowered women and improved their livelihoods. The results show that various attempts have been made to empower women economically and, in the end, improve women's food security and disposable household income. These interventions include, among others, providing women with land during the FTLRP. Once women are empowered with the resources for production such as land, their livelihoods would improve assuming that all the necessary inputs are in place (see subheading 2.6.4; 2.6.5 & 2.6.6.1).

Food security exists when all people in a given household have sufficient and nutritious food for a healthy life. Food insecurity is viewed as a state in which reliable access to food is limited (see subheading 2.6.4). Thus, there is a relationship between women empowerment through land and sustainable livelihoods. Sustainable livelihoods involve higher output on the farm for empowered women and would lead to an improvement in food security.

The first secondary objective was to describe income-generating activities for women land beneficiaries after Phase 2 of the land reform. It was shown that women farmers from the selected wards of Makoni district had varied livelihood activities, such as mixed agriculture and ISALs, which sustained their food security and disposable household income. More so, empowering women should incorporate increasing their

means of survival and addressing gender aspects which greatly lead to unequal access to resources.

The second secondary objective was to explicate support structures and resources for WEE. It was found that there are various institutions such as government line ministries or departments and external partners that have taken it upon themselves to assist women farmers. When women receive the necessary support, they could be capable of improving their livelihood activities. However, and sadly, the support mechanism has also been influenced by gender dynamics, which have impacted negatively on women's engagement in sustainable livelihoods.

The third secondary objective looked at the assistance that had been given rural female land beneficiaries by external partners. It emerged from the study that external partners rendered mixed support to the women land beneficiaries. The support was marked by capacity building through training and financial support. However, despite noble intentions, these interventions were also marred by gender discrepancies, which favoured men over women. Therefore, the women could not sufficiently engage in sustainable livelihoods.

The last secondary objective focused on strategies adopted to empower women economically for sustainable livelihoods. The findings revealed that varied strategies were adopted in order to strengthen WEE. The interventions included making women access pieces of land and addressing gender issues that negatively impede on women's hope and engagement for sustainable livelihoods.

5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The issue of WEE is complex. These factors include owning and controlling land. Coupled with controlling the means of production, there should be deliberate attempts by different players to address and remove barriers that are associated with gender disparities if these women are to be economically empowered. The noted areas proposed for research are:

- To explore how the Zimbabwean government of and society at-large have adopted policies and regulations meant to empower women economically;
- To document the extent to which women who are politically and economically empowered can become spokespersons for marginalised women and therefore, spearhead women's emancipation; and
- To analyse the challenges faced by external partners in their quest to support women's economic empowerment activities.

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APPENDIX 1: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



DEPARTMENT OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE
APPLICATION FOR ETHICS REVIEW AND CLEARANCE

Date: 7 December 2017

Dear Mr/Ms A Murombo

Ref
#:2017_DEVSTUD_Student_13
Name of applicant: A Murombo
Student #: 43200885

Decision: Ethical Clearance

Name: Alick Murombo

Student in the Department of Development Studies

Supervisor: Prof GE du Plessis

Co-Supervisor: N/A

Proposal: Women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods through the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) in Zimbabwe.

E-mail: 43200885@mylife.unisa.ac.za

Qualification: MA in Development Studies

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Department of Development Studies' Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Your application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the Department of Development Studies' Research Ethics Review Committee on 7 December 2017.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the Department of Development Studies' Research Ethics Review Committee. An amended application could be requested if there are



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substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.

- 3) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study.

Note:

The reference number, 2017_DEVSTUD_Student_13, should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Department of Development Studies' Research Ethics Review Committee.

Kind regards,


Prof DA Kotzé
Chairperson, ERC
Department of Development Studies
TvW Building, Room 4-40
Tel 012 429 6592
E-mail: kotzeda@unisa.ac.za

Approval template 2014

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APPENDIX 2: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS GUIDE FOR WOMEN LAND BENEFICIARIES

My name is Alick Murombo, a Masters' student with the University of South Africa (UNISA). My student number is **43200885**. Email address alickmurombo@gmail.com and Cell. No. +263 772 415 257. I am currently working on my dissertation. The title for my dissertation is: **Women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods through the land reform in Zimbabwe**

The aim of this study is to discuss how women had improved their livelihoods due to the land reform exercise. You are kindly requested to complete this questionnaire on your own and do not write your name on it. You will take approximately 40 minutes of your time to respond to the questions.

Your views are essential as they form the foundation for this study.

Questions

1. In your opinion discuss the extent to which Phase 2 of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe, economically empowered women and improve their livelihoods. Explain your response.

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2. Explain the extent to which income-generating activities, skills and assets improved women's participation in decision-making processes after the Phase 2 of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe. Elaborate more on your response.

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3. Which were the various support structures and resources that helped women to achieve economic empowerment after the FTLRP in Zimbabwe?

-
-
-
4. What form of assistance was given towards rural women land beneficiaries by external partners? Elaborate your response

-
-
-
5. Which strategies were adopted to strengthen women's economic empowerment in Zimbabwe after the FTLRP? Explain your response.

.....

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.....

.....

END THANK YOU

APPENDIX 3: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR LAND OFFICERS

1. In your opinion discuss the extent to which Phase 2 of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe, economically empowered women and improve their livelihoods.
2. Explain the extent to which income-generating activities, skills and assets improved women's participation in decision-making processes after the Phase 2 of the FTLRP in Zimbabwe.
3. Which were the various support structures and resources that helped women to achieve economic empowerment after the FTLRP in Zimbabwe?
4. What form of assistance was given towards rural women land beneficiaries by external partners?
5. Which strategies were adopted to strengthen women's economic empowerment in Zimbabwe after the FTLRP?

APPENDIX 4: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO THE DISTRICT ADMINISTRATOR

Family AIDS Caring Trust
2 Aerodrome Road, Mutare
Zimbabwe

Cell (+263 772 415 257/ +263 784 7735 35
email address: alickmurombo@gmail.com

The District Administrator
Makoni District
Rusape

Dear Sir/ Madam

Request for permission to collect research data in Makoni District

I am currently registered with the University of South Africa (UNISA) for the Master of Arts in Development Studies. My dissertation is entitled: **Women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods through the Land Reform in Zimbabwe** and it focuses on Makoni district of Manicaland province.

The aim of this letter is to request permission from you to conduct my research in the selected wards of Makoni district. I intend to conduct focus group discussions (FGDs) with female land beneficiaries and interviews with land officers in the district, from the 6th of August 2018. I hope the time to collect data will not be more than three months. All the individuals who will be involved in this research will remain anonymous.

Hopefully, the findings of the study will bring insight into how women in Makoni district have been economically empowered to engage in sustainable livelihoods through the fast track land reform programme. The research findings will be used only for the purpose of this study. The issue of women empowerment due to the land reform programme has received mixed reactions. Some argue that women greatly benefited from the land reform programme, while others refute this assertion.

Yours faithfully



Alick Murombo (Student No. 43200885)

Supervisor: Prof. GE Du Plessis
Contact email: dplesge@unisa.ac.za



APPENDIX 5: CONSENT FORM

Dear Participant (s)

My name is Alick Murombo, a Masters' student with the University of South Africa (UNISA). My student number is **43200885**. Email address **alickmurombo@gmail.com** My Cell. No. is +263 772 415 257. I am currently working on my dissertation. The title for my dissertation is: **Women's economic empowerment for sustainable livelihoods through the land reform in Zimbabwe**

The information that you will give will be held in strict confidence and the participation is voluntary. Although you can withdraw anytime if you may choose not to participate, I am kindly encouraging you to continue up-to the end of the data collection period. I will return to the district after the research has been approved to give feedback on the findings.

Your cooperation is greatly esteemed. Thank you.

Yours Alick Murombo

Signature of Participants

.....
.....
.....

Date